

# Child and Family Welfare

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CONTENTS.		PAGE
SOCIAL CASE WORK — ITS PLACE IN THE WORLD		
TODAY — Bertha C. Reynolds .....		1
MATERNAL AND CHILD HYGIENE		
Achievements in Frontier Nursing Service — Fyvie Young .....		13
A Sikh Well - Baby Clinic in British Columbia .....		17
A Manual of School Health .....		19
CHILD CARE AND PROTECTION		
Child Placing in Canada .....		23
FAMILY WELFARE		
Victoria Agency Reorganized — Elizabeth Grubb .....		39
COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION		
New Ways of Helping in Family Service .....		42
Conferences .....		47
PUBLIC WELFARE SERVICES		
The National Employment Commission .....		49
Canadian Relief Camps .....		50
Chamber of Commerce Resolutions on Relief .....		52
DELINQUENCY		
Inquiry Into Canadian Penal System .....		55
CHURCH AND SOCIAL WORK		
The Religious Education of the Child — Charlotte Whitton ..		56
FRENCH - SPEAKING SERVICES		
Mortalité Maternelle — J. A. Baudouin, M.D. ....		62
FEDERATION OF KINDERGARTNERS		
The Role of the Nursery School Teacher .....		69

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(Continued on inside back cover).







# Child and Family Welfare

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## SOCIAL CASE WORK: WHAT IS IT? WHAT IS ITS PLACE IN THE WORLD TODAY?\*

BERTHA C. REYNOLDS

"LIFE is for growth." So does Zona Gale, in a recent article in *The Nation*,<sup>1</sup> sum up the message of the life of Charlotte Perkins Gilman. Quoting her words, "Anything which hampered or thwarted the growth, the expanding consciousness, the increasing co-operation of the Human Being, that Unit of Life, was to her the sin not so much unpardonable as incredible. For life is for growth. That was the brilliant common sense of her enormous awareness of the human scene. Set against the simple tragedy, the simple ambition, even the simple aspiration of the individual life, this interpretation of hers raised living to new riches."

### A Definition for Social Work

I have never come upon a better definition of social work than could be based upon these words. In common with education such as is worthy of the name, it stakes its all on the truth of the proposition that life *is* for growth. Social work differs from education in that its attention is more given to the hindrances, the thwartings of growth as these arise in human lives than to the fostering of the growth process as it goes forward successfully. But education, too, has to concern itself at times with whatever hinders learning, and social work is constantly helping people to an expanding consciousness of their world and their place in it. It is *social* in that it assists the individual human being to relate himself to others and to act in co-operation with them. Adapting the words just quoted, then, to a sort of definition: social work concerns itself with human beings where there is anything that hinders or thwarts their growth, their expanding consciousness, their increasing co-operation.

<sup>1</sup> Sept. 25, 1935, p. 350.

\* A paper given at the New York State Conference of Social Work, and printed in "The Family" December, 1935.

Social case work is that form of social work which assists the individual while he struggles to relate himself to his family, his natural groups, his community. It would be needless to say (were it not too often contradicted by our practice) that if we really believe that life is for growth we shall use no methods that in themselves hamper the growth of the human spirit. We cannot take people by the throat and say, "Do as I say and you shall grow." We cannot help them to live co-operatively with others if we ourselves are not willing to submit to the self-discipline necessary for co-operation with the laws of growth. We may learn these laws by observing the variety of their manifestations in many human beings, but we do not make them and we cannot control them. We may have the high privilege of co-operating with the laws of growth only if we are wise.

### **Case Work in a World "Bent on Destruction"**

If we accept such a definition of social case work, what possible place has it in a world that seems bent upon destruction of human life? "Life is for growth" sounds like a grim joke in a world kindling into the flames of war, that destroys every living and growing thing it touches. We know better now than to glorify war (until we get into one), yet we spend millions in preparation for it and then say that a nation cannot afford milk for its babies and the conditions of healthy growth and opportunities for adequate education for all its children. A nation cannot afford, we say, the new kind of social insurance which actually insures the whole people against such a loss of purchasing power as keeps industries idle and gluts the market with agricultural products while starving and ill-clad people go without because they cannot buy.

Obsessed with the idea that man is degraded by receiving anything for which he does not work, this topsy-turvy world of ours does not bend its energies to solving the problems of the creation of opportunities for real work at real wages. It rather safeguards first profits and dividends which are awarded without reference to work performed, and then provides meagerly for the victims of its economic mistakes under conditions of receiving the necessities of life as degrading to self-respect as could well be. Made work pulls down the wages or displaces the labour of those who still remain regularly employed.

The tenant farmers who have become serfs of the soil are driven even from that last refuge in the effort to save prices and profits. Those who protest suffer violence, tear gas, beatings, and bullets in exchange for the slow starvation which has become intolerable. With conditions like these an actuality in many parts of our

beloved country, it seems a mockery to say that our profession exists to foster the growth of a more abundant life. If it does, where is its place? Perhaps it belongs only in an older, gentler time. Perhaps it should be put away with lavender and old lace.

### **Bewildered, Like Youth To-day**

Social case work is passing through a period of questioning, of day dream and disillusion very like that of the young men and women who step out of school and college in these years and find no place for themselves in this chaotic world. They have ideals, yet they are told they must be practical. They do not see that the practical necessities are being met, yet they have no way of convincing their elders or themselves that their ideals are either worth trying or safe to try.

I do not mean to belittle the accomplishments of our profession when I say that it seems to me like youth today. It has, to be sure, won a recognition from government and from public opinion that was lacking in the days when the words "social worker" (most unfortunate and misunderstood name) caused a titter and evoked a mental image of a meddling old maid. This recognition, however, is much like the prestige of an honoured family name — quite as likely to be an embarrassment as an asset to a youth coming into an age quite different from that in which his forefathers achieved their success. We come of a spiritual line of men and women who fought for human rights and struggled to secure better opportunity in a far less mechanized and interdependent world than ours. We come of a line of craftsmen in the art of human relations who worked with crude tools and by trial and error, without the opportunities there are today for interchange of experience and professional training.

We have the help of all the advances in the social sciences and vastly better opportunities than our forefathers to understand human behaviour and the emotions that activate it. It would be a shame for us to repeat their methods or tie down to their successes, yet it is not easy to convince those who pay us honour for the sake of our honourable ancestors that we must study to adapt our contribution to the problems of our own day and time.

### **Conflicts and False Hopes**

The youth who faces life on his own for the first time is beset by conflicts within himself as well as by false expectations from without. It is hard to know what to expect of oneself and how to direct one's energies. It seems to me that social case work has not yet faced the fact that, in a mechanized and interdependent

world, the creation of conditions suitable for a decent life for all people is not only beyond the power of individuals but beyond the power of any social work program, however elaborate.

It is the most essential function of government itself to see that its natural wealth is not exploited and wasted while its real wealth in the persons of its citizens suffers depreciation for want of the necessities of life. That responsibility cannot be delegated to any group of people, however benevolent; and it cannot be discharged by relieving individuals, no matter how needy. Further than that, it becomes clearer every day that no one government can set its house in order without reference to all the rest in the family of nations.

Perhaps the spirit of the pioneers in social work will in this day descend to those who shall put a new meaning into public service, a spirit of co-operation for the common weal rather than of competition for private gain into every activity of the national life. In the face of a challenge like this, it seems a bit like playing with magic words to find social case workers talking as if by more and better social agencies the world were going to be saved. Monstrous evils are not eradicated by the method of the little boy with the toy gun who says, "When I say 'bang!' you're dead." It may be disillusionment to realize that, but it is a sign of healthy growth for a young profession to learn how to expend its energies upon what it can really do.

To repeat, the creation and maintenance of healthful conditions of living is the business of every citizen. It is the specialized business of experts in conservation of forests, fisheries, and soils; the business of experts in transportation and power developments, in mining and metallurgy, in bacteriology and insect control, in sanitation, in fire and accident prevention. It is the business of specialists in city planning and housing, in organization and management, in production and distribution of goods and services. It is the business of experts in the administration of relief as long as economic maladjustments continue.

The possibility of an environment conducive to healthful living for all has come about through its technical advances in production in recent years. The actuality awaits a social organization that can own the means of production and distribute its material resources for social good. It awaits a change of attitude of mind more urgently than any other change — an abandonment of the competition for profits which is constantly throwing back to the law of the jungle every attempt at better social organization. It must have a clear acceptance of the principle that co-operation is the only condition under which survival is possible in an inter-dependent world.



## A New Ideal in Public Service

The call of the hour is for an ideal of public service that shall enlist the strength and enthusiasm of every young man and woman, the steadiness and mellowed experience of all in later life. It is a call to patriotism that is not bounded by national lines nor by racial or religious prejudices. It is world-wide in its sweep because it must be if the curse of war is not to destroy all that we know as civilization. It is a destiny in which everyone must find his place, bringing whatever gift he has to bring — for all are desperately needed. How shall one whose expertness is in social case work relate himself to the critical needs of this time?

We have implied that a first step may be to get rid of the delusion of grandeur that expects the world to be saved by social case work. I think we are confused by the fact that, in its concern with all that touches human life, social case work has to correlate the services of so many technical and professional advisers that it sometimes mistakes its interest in other professional fields for expertness in them, and claims too much, or else wonders whether it has any field of its own at all. Social case work can bear to be only one among many professions contributing to the common welfare if it is clear that it has some place of its own where its expertness is recognized on more than sentimental grounds — an expertness that is worth acquiring even at much personal sacrifice.

I do not think we need to confuse social case work with administration, either in public or private organizations for social welfare. Perhaps we are at this moment developing a new profession of administrator of public relief. Perhaps courses of training will emphasize the basic social sciences, economics, sociology, government, a practical and scientifically sound psychology, and technical studies in organization and business management.

The fact that social case workers have been employed as relief administrators does not imply that it need always be so. Perhaps they were called on in the depression emergency because there was a shortage of men and women equipped by training and experience to grapple with the new problems confronting communities, and they were chosen, as ministers in colonial times used to be chosen for college presidents, because there were no others at the time any more adequately prepared.

Good administration may or may not call for just the same qualities and preparation as make a good case worker. I am inclined to think not, for while there must be a broad and sincere interest in and understanding of human beings, the administrator must keep his eye on the carrying out of the kind of program that will benefit the largest number. He must be able to forget the individual

exceptions in order to keep the keenest sense of how the essential things are getting done, and what is best *on the whole*.

It is clear that the contribution of social case work is to supplement the best public administration, not to struggle to make up for the mistakes of a poor one. If a faulty school curriculum is causing every year thousands of school failures, it would be stupid to engage visiting teachers to work individually with the unsuccessful children. Why not change the curriculum and do away with that particular problem at one stroke? If one mistaken relief ruling is affecting the lives of thousands so adversely that no amount of social case work can undo the damage, the remedy calls for better administration, not better case work.

### **Individual Service to Supplement Mass Program**

Supplementing every mass program, however, there must be some provision for reaching the individuals who are affected by it. This is for two reasons : to keep the planning in line with real conditions and changing needs, and to take care of the exceptional cases that can never be covered by any administrative program, however complete. It is in this latter area that social case work is most clearly seen as indispensable. The exceptional individuals who will need special help, even under the best administration, may be having trouble in adjusting to the mass program itself, or they may be having difficulties with life anyway and come to attention through the carrying out of the mass program. In either case, they need individual attention and often expert attention.

Why, you ask, does it need to be expert? Why not ask them what is the matter, and either fix it up or tell them you can't and send them home? Unfortunately it is not as simple as that. The findings of psychology and psychiatry during the last quarter-century have confirmed what keen observers had noticed before without knowing the reasons : that often people do not know what is the matter; that, lacking knowledge of this, attempts to "fix it up" fail; and that people are not satisfied to be sent home without any better understanding of their situation or any gain in ability to cope with it. It is because feelings and desires buried beneath the surface of consciousness determine so largely what people do and how they co-operate with others that only a person who is expert enough to help these feelings to get to the surface can be very reliably useful in helping people in difficulty.

Such expertness does not come through being well endowed in personal characteristics nor yet through experience of living, although these are important to the growth of the kind of mature, well-

balanced personality that is of most help to people in difficulties. The days of rule-of-thumb in case work practice are going fast. There is now a body of scientific knowledge of personality and behaviour such that mistakes costly in time and in suffering are no longer as excusable as they used to be. The findings of psychiatry and psychology, medicine, sociology, economics, and political science can now be applied to human problems in a consulting relationship which has been developed in a unique way in social case work. It differs from the relationship of psychiatrist and patient in that it does not assume that the person seeking help is sick and is placing himself in the hands of another for treatment, and it does not, or should not, ignore the social milieu to which the client is trying to adjust. It keeps the problem in the client's hands but diagnoses his difficulty with it as a good teacher would diagnose a child's difficulty with reading or with learning to swim.

### Trouble Detectors

The case worker does not pick such knowledge out of the air, yet all his book theories will tell him only what *might* be the matter, not what *is* the matter with the distressed person before him. To learn that, he must use all his powers of observation and when the person does not himself know what is the matter, the case worker must be able to read the true story of the source of the difficulties in spite of the client's inability to make it clear. If the client's need is to hide his pain, the case worker must the more skilfully understand what he means, even while he is denying it. He must be able to relieve the client's distress enough to make it possible for the client to work with him toward a solution in terms of a readjustment in living. And by *relieve* I do not mean only taking care of material needs, although that may be important: relief of anxiety and fear are sometimes equally necessary before the client can take part in the solution of his own difficulties.

An illustration<sup>2</sup> which seemed to me to express the essentials of case work in its simplest form occurred on the stairs of a New York subway. A little boy about four years old was delaying traffic by stepping slowly and carefully down the stairs, clinging to the handrail with both hands and managing also to hold on to a bundle. His mother called from ahead, "Hurry up, son!" Then, glancing back and sizing up the situation, she went to him and said, "Here, let me take the bundle if it's going to stop your walking." She relieved him of his bundle, took his hand (the one farthest from the rail) and hurried on, the boy now keeping up very well.

<sup>2</sup> Written for *Parent Education*, April 1, 1935.

Analyzing the illustration as it typifies social case work : The boy was in difficulty — social difficulty — because, though perhaps not fully conscious of it himself, he was delaying the procession. He might have become troubled by it if the crowd had jostled him and might have called to his mother. In this instance, she answered his unspoken call because he was a very little boy and she was responsible for him. If he had been older, she would not have gone to him unasked.

Second, the mother sized up the situation. Keen observation, plus her knowledge of what a four-year-old could do, plus knowledge of her own boy's personality (that he was conscientious rather than mischievous or mean, for instance) led her to the conclusion that the total situation was too much for him to manage at the pace required by the social group, *i.e.*, the people on the stairs. She saw what part he might be relieved of so that he could manage the rest.

Third, the mother relieved the boy of part of his responsibility (the bundle) and added to his resources for accomplishing the rest by supporting one hand while he kept the other on the rail. In this way he could walk straight forward and his short legs could take the relatively long steps required.

Fourth, the mother brought to the reinforcement of the boy's ability to do his utmost the security of his relationship to her. It was plain that he trusted her, and that his clinging to the rail had been as much fear as because of any actual danger of falling. With her by his side, he could step forth more boldly, raise his eyes to look where he was going, feel a bigger person in himself.

### **The Personal Element in Case Work**

We have said that the expertness of the social case worker is applied in a consulting relationship. The relationship to a person is very important. Just as children can take education only from a teacher whom they like, so troubled adults find that they get no help from talking with one person and a world of relief and stimulation from another. Not every person can use a relationship with the same person or in the same way. It is for this reason that we say that an organization may make case work service available but that it cannot force anyone to use it any more than the proverbial horse can be forced to drink. Unless the case worker can create confidence in himself such that the client chooses to share his burdens with him, there is no case work service given or received.

Social case work differs from the ordinary relationships in social life in one important respect. It is oriented one way — toward the



client's need. The professional worker does not expect to get from the client, as he could rightly expect to get from his friends, sympathy or advice, nor does he ask the client to serve his interests. In the hours he gives to the professional relationship, he shelves his own interests as a member of a family, a church, or a political party, in order that his clients may realize themselves more fully in the social groupings of their own choice. A teacher does this also. It was said of a much-loved teacher of dancing that she could have had a great career for herself on the stage had she not preferred to get her joy out of the growth of her most awkward pupils toward freedom of movement. The surgeon was not unique who replied to the patient who remarked how confining his work must be, "I do not mind if only my patients get well."

This means, however, that one who selects a profession like social case work must live a large part of his life through the lives of others. If he does not accept this necessity, he will find himself constantly getting in the way of those whose growth he should be fostering, wanting his way, using the clients to achieve his ends. He will find case work slow and unsatisfying. Perhaps he should have chosen an art where he could express himself through wood and stone or pigments or musical sounds, not an art of which the materials are other human lives. Some people who are now in social case work should probably use their organizing ability in other forms of public service.

### **Does Social Case Work Pay Its Way?**

In a time of social upheaval like the present, questioning about the social value of any occupation is intensified. Does it pay its way? Social case work sets supreme value upon the individual in a world which seems, by blundering if not by design, to hold human life as the cheapest commodities. Social case workers find those who think that individuals are not worth bothering about opposing case work for very different reasons. Those who would use men and women as cogs in an industrial machine prefer that personal development be kept to a minimum lest it interfere with contented acceptance of monotonous labour. Those who want to free humanity from exploitation by a mass movement sometimes count on able leadership and a following that will act in unison without the loss of momentum involved in making room for individual differences. The social case worker is out of line with both, in danger of being eliminated as a social luxury in hard times, and in greater danger still of being caught up and used by a machine-like social system to make individuals docile, not to help them grow.

As many case workers have gone into public service, they have found that their opportunities to practice case work, that is, to put the needs of the individual client first, were abridged not only because the community in general had not provided the essential resources, but because the case worker himself was expected to be the mouthpiece of groups in the community other than the clients whose interests were most involved. If the policies of social case work ever come to be dictated by business firms bargaining for relief orders, by industries paying low wages, by political parties, or by racial animosities, social case work, like the salt in the Biblical saying, has lost its savour and is fit only to be cast out and trodden under foot of men. It has no place in the world today.

It may be that the best young minds of this generation should throw themselves directly into the problems of economics, international relations, constitutional law, the defence of civil liberties, the organization of workers — industrial, agricultural, and professional, and all the other activities so needful to lay new foundations in a disordered world. Perhaps those who are still free to choose their life work should avoid professions that make their contribution indirectly through the lives of others. Or, if education is conceded to be necessary, perhaps it should be mass education. We must make haste, for the fear of destruction is upon us. If war comes before we have found a way out, we are lost.

But wait ! Is there such a thing as mass education, except as masses of people learn by real experience? Millions may be told certain things by press or radio or film. They will seem to believe them and act upon them, perhaps, only to be swayed equally blindly by other propaganda delivered in the same ways by other groups. They have not made those things their own, related them to their own lives until they are able to stand firm for convictions that are theirs. They have not been educated — they have been herded, and the habit of being herded, whether by a beneficent or by an evil force is as fatal for stability and progress as for individual growth. Real education takes place in the meeting of minds upon common problems. Sound social action does not come about without the thinking and working together of men of many minds.

### **Client Participation in Mass Welfare Programs**

In speaking of the administration of mass programs of social welfare, we said that they must not be out of touch with the individuals who are to use them, because the planning of such programs may otherwise create mal-adjustments too great for any case work service to remedy. How may a great relief administration, for

instance, keep in constant touch with the effect of its policies upon the lives of its clients? Its agents may be trained case workers or they may not, but they can, if they will, learn to make good human contacts as they meet people in the business relationship of the distribution of relief. Whether they know what the clients are thinking about the relief program depends on whether they can create confidence enough so that people dare to talk to them.

Newspaper reporters and investigators on social surveys also have to create such confidence or they will not get the real information. Harshness, a superior manner, a defense of the rulings right or wrong, will make it impossible for them to know how the relief program is really working out. And if they do not know, or do not make their knowledge available, monstrous evils may grow up and be perpetuated. It all goes back to the quality of personal relationships, and tragic indeed is a situation where staff relationships are so bad that there is no chance for free interchange of opinion, and where clients are so left out of all social planning that not even to their visitors can they express what they think of it all.

Too often, private agencies, as well as public, and with less excuse of overwhelming numbers, have taken for granted that clients would have no opinions worth hearing and should take what they were offered and be grateful for it. The ideal of social case work which we have come to in these later years has not been lived up to in practice. If we had remembered that "life is for growth" we should have made of our social services great co-operative projects in education through active participation of clients as well as board and staff in the study of the meaning of difficult life situations and a search for remedies. There would have been a linking up of community work and case work.

There was never so much need as now for the getting together of social workers with employed and unemployed industrial workers and farmers, with consumers, and with the small taxpayers upon whom tax burdens fall most heavily; those who will be the clients of social agencies tomorrow if they are not today. There is an encouraging drawing together of social case work and social work with groups. Group work is finding that real leadership is based on the same principles as case work with individuals and demands the same ability to create confidence, to encourage free expression, and to stimulate energies. Both case workers and group workers are beginning to see more clearly their relation to the great movements of these stirring times.

### **Evaluation Difficult in Transition Period**

We do not know what our times hold in store. Ignorant of that, we do not know how to evaluate what we find in the transition which we call today. In the ruthlessness of the present, we would almost say that social case work, group social work, and progressive education, in so far as they assume a social order that encourages growth, are being swallowed up in a regimentation of misery. They are not wanted. They are starved out. They are even crushed in a panic of fear. People must not be allowed to think or they cannot be controlled.

The future of social case work is the future of the right of common men and women to economic justice and civil liberties, including the right to think and to participate in the making of their own life conditions. If the common men and women fail to achieve those rights, no one will have them. Professional people are learning that their fate is bound up with that of all other workers. If they do not stand courageously for all human rights, they will lose their own, including the right to practice their profession as a high and honourable calling.

Social case work, therefore, has a place in the world today only as we have hope worth putting our lives into that we can achieve a genuinely better world tomorrow.





## MATERNAL AND CHILD HYGIENE

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### ACHIEVEMENTS IN FRONTIER NURSING SERVICE

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**N**EVER to have been within a hundred miles of the Kentucky Mountains, and yet to feel that one has actually seen them and breathed the air of early morning there, has all the earmarks of a fable. Such was my experience, however, in a darkened room in New York City, as I watched swiftly changing lantern slides and listened to Mrs. Mary Breckinridge describing the work of the Frontier Nursing Service. A small vital woman, with a voice that expressed every variation of feeling, she managed to transport her audience to a totally strange place and to make them aware of all that was going on there.

The completeness of the transition can only be realized as one compares our habitual existence in modern buildings within the sound of automobiles and streetcar, to life in small wooden dwellings of one, perhaps two, rooms, with daylight shining through the cracks or obscured merely by a covering made from precious newspaper. There may be a window in one of the walls, but probably not, for glass is expensive. Outside, in every direction are hills and valleys, tree covered and without railways, roads, or even bridges over the many waterways. Most transportation is by means of small flat boats along the creeks and rivers, or on horseback through the woods.

In this almost primeval area, in the south eastern part of the State of Kentucky, there are thousands of people who have lived there for generations, but who have never become part of one community affected by the advance of civilization, largely because the arrangement of mountains and valleys had prevented easy communication. They are the purest American stock for they have been there some two hundred or more years, unaffected by any other racial strain. The inbreeding that has naturally occurred has served to intensify many characteristics that are peculiarly their own, and though uncultured and uneducated by ordinary standards they have an intense pride and almost tribal consciousness.

Another result of their peculiar existence and isolation has been what one might call "the survival of the fittest." In a pioneer existence there is no place for the weakling, no provision for the dependent except his own power to survive. The result has been the dominance of those characteristics that have proved strong enough to win in the struggle for existence. To Mrs. Breckinridge, this is one of the factors of importance in connection with child-birth, for it is the woman structurally able to have children without losing her life who has persisted. Those women not so equipped have died, for there has never been any medical care available throughout this area of some seven hundred square miles, to do what modern science has found possible in the saving of maternal and infant life.

Never, until in 1925 the Frontier Nursing Service was established. Mrs. Breckenridge, its founder and director, is herself of an old Kentucky family, profoundly interested in the mountain people and aware by virtue of her own background of the prejudices and peculiarities that might have been a permanent stumbling block to anyone from the outside. Because of the nature of the country, the nursing service cannot be centralized, and the nurses are stationed, usually in pairs, in centres that are about ten miles apart. Every nurse is a graduate, with midwifery and public health training, and in addition qualified by personality for the kind of work she must do. Life in a pioneer country, travelling on horseback, with little opportunity to get to the outside world, calls for particular qualifications in character and adaptability.

There is a small eight bed hospital, with a doctor in charge who is also medical director of the Service, and in addition a Medical Advisory Committee under whose authorization the nurses can give some treatments pending the arrival of a doctor. The only physician resident in the area is the medical director.

Although the maternity service is of paramount importance and occupies most time, it does not represent all the work done, for the nurses carry on a generalized nursing and public health programme. The family is the unit, and all of its members are carried, in that the nurse is responsible for their health. One tremendous problem that affects everyone, and is particularly hard on the children, is the hookworm. It has been a scourge for generations, causing ill health and loss of life, and has still to be dealt with persistently. Now, however, it is almost possible to identify the families in which a nurse has been working by the appearance of the children and their freedom from worms.

Any measurement of the results of public health work is always difficult, and in the Kentucky Mountains particularly, where there

are so many varieties of care being given. However, some estimate can be made of the saving there has been in maternal life, for careful records have been kept, and the statistics have been studied and summarized by Dr. Louis Dublin of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, in 1932 at the termination of the first thousand cases, and again in 1935 after the completion of the second thousand. In Dr. Dublin's own words, it is

" . . . an exceptional record under the most favourable circumstances, (and) its accomplishment under the difficult conditions in frontier homes is noteworthy."<sup>1</sup>

The first 1004 cases were cared for between May 1925 and May 1932, and the second 1000 between May 1932 and May 1935. In both groups the ages of the mothers ranged from the early teens to the late forties, but the 1932 report shows 17 per cent under twenty years of age, and 28 per cent between twenty and twenty five, compared with 16.6 per cent under twenty and 31.3 per cent between twenty and twenty-five in 1935.

Complications during pregnancy occurred in 287 cases in the early group, and in 193 in the second, the greatest difference occurring in the number of toxic conditions and varicosities, which were 200 and 120 respectively in the first series, and 101 and 48 in the second. In the second group, out of a possible 78 with toxic conditions, in only three did the condition interfere with the birth of a live baby. In all but nine cases the condition was eliminated by the time of delivery, showing some evidence of the results of prenatal care. In the first 1004 cases, approximately 18 per cent of the mothers registered before the sixth month, and in the second 1000, 21 per cent registered before the sixth month.

The doctor's service was used (in both home and hospital) for 52 cases for the first series, and for 61 cases for the second. Among the first 1004 cases there were one Caesarean and 9 forceps deliveries, and in the second thousand, 2 Caesarean, one episiotomy and 4 forceps deliveries. (In New York, where most cases are attended by doctors, it is estimated that 20 per cent of all deliveries are operative, and that almost half the operations are Caesarean sections.)<sup>2</sup> The low figures of the Frontier Nursing Service are interesting in the light of the recent Canadian study of maternal mortality,<sup>3</sup> where stress is laid on the need for the serious consideration that should be given to the thought of operative interference by both patient and physician.

(1) and (2) Statistical Summary of the Frontier Nursing Service, by Dr. Dublin, May 1935 and of May 1932.

(3) Canadian Welfare Council Publication No. 76, "Need Our Mothers Die."  
"The Frontier Nursing Service" by Mary B. Willeford, Public Health Nursing, Vol. xxv, January, 1933.

Among the first 1004 cases no maternal deaths occurred due to puerperal causes, (although two mothers died, one of chronic heart disease, the other of kidney disease). In the second 1000 cases there were no deaths. A record of no maternal deaths in 2004 cases and over a period of ten years.

The infant mortality for the two periods, was, in the first 1004 cases, one late abortion, 26 stillbirths, 989 live births and 25 infant deaths in the first month. In the second 1000 cases, 6 late abortions, 23 stillbirths, 982 live births and 26 infant deaths in the first month.

### Analysis of First Thousand and Second Thousand Midwifery Records Compared. The Frontier Nursing Service Inc.

	1st 1000 records. 1,004	2nd 1000 records. 1,000
Total pregnancies.....		
Delivered :		
At term.....	962	959
Before term.....	42	41
Live births.....	989	982
Stillbirths.....	26	23
Late abortions.....	1	6
Condition of mother at end of first month :		
Fair.....	44	43
Satisfactory.....	958	955
Unsatisfactory.....	...	2
Dead at end of first month :		
Mother.....	2	...
Baby.....	25	26

May 22nd, 1935.

In studying these figures it is interesting to compare them with other known rates. The average maternal mortality rate for the years 1926 to 1933 in Canada was 5.4, and in the United States 6.6. It is estimated that the Victorian Order of Nurses in Canada attends about 6 per cent of the births in the Dominion, a large proportion of whom are in the lower economic group, and their maternal mortality rate for the years 1930 to 1934 averages 2. Although such a service tends to have predominantly normal cases, there seems to be an indication of the value of consistent and persistent care carried on before, during and following delivery. In the work of the Frontier Nursing Service there is no record previous to 1925 with which to compare the present figures, but in comparison with other standards they speak for themselves, and in the mountain area there are people who have not yet received any nursing care, and among whom there is mortality.

The circumstances that have contributed to the results of ten years' work reveal a tremendous contrast. In the midst of extremely primitive conditions, where living and transportation present every imaginable difficulty there is a challenge to tempt the most vigorous.



The nurses and other workers who are carrying on are equipped with the best possible professional preparation, and with personal characteristics that respond to the demand made of them. They are working with people who are backward and unprogressive according to many standards, but whose native character and innate endurance are in their own way an inspiration. The situation is unique, and most of its elements could be reproduced in few other places, but the principles of sound professional preparation, scientific methods faithfully applied, and the unswerving maintenance of the important principles of maternal care bear careful study.

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### **A SIKH WELL-BABY CLINIC IN BRITISH COLUMBIA**

The logging and lumbering industry characteristic of many parts of British Columbia is a cosmopolitan trade, attracting men from other lumber countries and from the lands whose people are accustomed to hard and steady labour. Scandinavians, Chinese, Japanese and Sikhs, as well as Canadians and Americans, are to be found in almost any lumber camp.

There is one unique mill on Vancouver Island, not far from the town of Duncan, owned and operated by Sikhs, Mayo Singh and Kapoor Singh, who have large lumber interests on the island. To reach it one approaches by way of the highway to Cowichan Lake, turning to the right to climb a gravel road rather steeply. On reaching the top of the rise, one looks down into a hollow bare of trees, against a background of hills that are equally bare. Clustered together without much plan, and absolutely without beauty, is a large number of small wooden buildings and in the centre of the group the saw mill and the mill pond, in which float tremendous fir trunks. Outstanding among the gray buildings are three houses, cream coloured and red roofed, in which live the three families of most importance.

A number of the Sikhs working in Canada have been here for many years, and their understanding of language and customs is usually fairly good. It is not so long, however, since their wives and families have been permitted entry, and for them life is often difficult. The differences of dress and custom tend to isolate them, they cannot understand English, and depend on their husbands and children for help. Most of them were married when very young, as is their country's custom, and have lived in villages where there were always old women on whom they could call for advice in caring for their babies. To come to a strange new place, where climate and food present many perils is bewildering to people so childlike, and they need and appreciate any help they are given.

The first baby clinics at Mayo were held some eight years ago by the nurses of the Cowichan Health Centre, when in good times the mill was busy and there were many babies. During the depression years, from 1930 to 1934, work ceased for a time, and only a comparatively few families remained, waiting patiently for things to pick up. Although a nurse continued to visit them all regularly, it was not until the early part of 1934 that the noise of the mill was heard again, other families moved in, and the clinic was re-established. One of the nurses describes it in picturesque detail as it is held after three o'clock in the primary school building :

"At quarter to three the nurse approaches the school, baby-scales under one arm and a large sheet of cardboard under the other. As she walks up the board walk she meets an anxious mother who has been pacing up and down in front of the school with a seven-month-old babe in her arms. The mother looks as if she had stepped down from an Indian picture, with her wide-flowing silk trousers and picturesque *sari*, or head-veil.

"'Oh, nursu, you weigh bibi to-day?' she asks eagerly. Reassuring her, the nurse enters the school and arranges the scales on the table. The piece of cardboard she hangs on the wall; on it are pasted brightly-coloured vegetables and fruits, cut out from magazines. This is the nurse's interpreter.

"The little Indian mother has followed and hovers at the door, chattering in Punjabi with the school children who have gathered to watch. The nurse asks her to be seated and begins to unwrap the baby. Two shawls come first, then two rainbow-coloured, hand-knitted sweaters; next a knitted bonnet with a round pom-pom on top; lastly long multi-coloured stockings. His outer clothing removed, baby is now ready and is lifted to the scales, where he howls lustily.

"'Bas, bas,' cries the mother, snapping her fingers above the baby, as she watches the weights going on. Baby has only gained one ounce in a week.

"'What has he been eating? Mother-milk? Anything else? Cow-milk, some time little bit potato. 'Cereal' she does not understand, but 'mush' brings a smile of joy from her. The chart is brought into use; she recognizes vegetables by picture if not by name. She is told when and what to feed her baby and is given a book on infant-feeding. Though the majority of mothers know only a few words of English, the fathers can generally speak and read it with ease.

"Next comes a mother with a sixteen-month-old baby who has had nothing but breast-milk since birth, with a few arrow-root biscuits once in a while. The child can barely sit up by himself and the mother is very worried. 'Nursu, bibi sick.'

"The nurse has a difficult task. She calls to one of the school children. A little girl, with long glossy black hair and sparkling black eyes, answers eagerly. There is nothing she likes better than airing her newly acquired English.

"The nurse finds exactly what the child is getting, then tells the mother exactly what the child should get. 'Cod liver oil' is the most difficult thing for her to grasp. The little interpreter herself does not understand. Fortunately the nurse has a small sample bottle of cod liver oil in her pocket. This is produced, and though the bottle is not recognized, at least the smell is, and all are smiles once more. The mother departs happily, and the nurse wonders to herself how many of her instructions will be carried out. She knows from experience how often baby is not given his proper food because 'he no likee.'

"And so they come and go. Each day the nurse repeats the same instructions, and though they are not all carried out immediately, eventually the mothers come to realize how important proper diet is. And as they see their babies gaining under the new regime more than before, so they tend to do more what they are told.

"Time passes quickly and as the last mothers walk down the stairs, chattering and laughing in their soft native voices, with their toddling babies clinging to their trousers, the nurse glances out the door to see the sun sinking behind the near-by hills. She gathers up her cards and papers to depart. The clinic is over."

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## A MANUAL OF SCHOOL HEALTH

SCHOOL HEALTH. VOL. I.—Published by The Canadian Red Cross Society, 621 Jarvis St., Toronto 5, Canada. 1936. 54 pp. Price 10c.

The organization of the Junior Red Cross in many Canadian Schools has been one valuable means of introducing health principles and activities to the school age group, not as a unique function that can be carried out today and forgotten tomorrow, but as a fundamental part of what is done from day to day. The inclusion of public health instruction in many of the normal schools is tending to give the teacher-in-training a more adequate background for the inclusion of health information in her teaching, but there are still normal students graduating without this preparation, and many teachers now in the field who did not receive it. To these groups the handbook, "School Health," which has just been published by the Canadian Red Cross Society will be a useful tool, as a guide for planning the school health programme and as a source of accurate information.

Scientific articles have been contributed by men with wide experience in their different fields on "What the Teacher Should Know . . . ." of different factors that affect health. The style of each chapter varies as one would expect, but the result lends variety and is stimulating to the reader.

In his foreword, George Gallie Naismith, Chairman of the National Junior Red Cross Society, emphasizes the necessity for health education and an intelligent understanding of the laws of health, naming the school age group as the most teachable, and the school the place where most effective results can be obtained. One might object to this definite location, and the tacit elimination of the home, for surely it is only by the concerted effort of both school and home that habits will really become established.

The incidence of communicable disease in the school age group is often high; children gravitate to group activity and possibilities of contact are great. A clear, practical outline is given by Dr. G. F. Amyot in "What the Teacher Should Know About Communicable Disease", that might well be used in planning a school programme, and as a basis for teaching in connection with communicable disease. Dr. David A. Stewart, in his article "What the Teacher Should Know about Tuberculosis", applies these same principles to a specific disease and a wider field. The control of tuberculosis is a social as well as a medical problem requiring the effort of everyone if it is to be successfully met.

Frequently a factor in school retardation is the presence of defects that often lead to an unfair judgment of the child's effort if they are not suspected. Dr. A. Lloyd Morgan in "What the Teacher Should Know about Eyes", describes the structure of the eye, a simple method for testing vision, and the nature of the more common defects and their treatment. In the following article the uses and characteristics, as well as the cause and effect of defects, in ears, tonsils and adenoids are outlined in a clear, tabulated form by Dr. J. E. Davey. Dr. Harry S. Thompson, in "What the Teacher Should Know about Dental Hygiene", gives a detailed description of the structure and care of temporary and permanent teeth with diagram of their eruption, structure and the progress of neglected dental caries.

Continuing to orthopaedic defects, Dr. D. E. Robertson in "The Genesis of Crippling" outlines in a rather more scientific manner the origin of different types of crippling defects and the usual methods of treatment. The article is carefully put together and will no doubt prove stimulating, particularly to the teacher who numbers similar cases among her pupils. A like stimulating effect is the aim of Dr. W. T. B. Mitchell in "What a Teacher

Should Know about Mental Hygiene". He has had space to express only in general terms the possibilities of this subject, and it is hoped the teacher will be interested and read further.

The reader at this point is faced with the question, how best to make use of all this material, and is answered in part by Dr. Ernest M. Best in the opening article, "Principles of Health Education". He outlines the objectives of health education, the motives that lead people to learn and do, and the need for integration if behaviour is to be modified. His opening note is caught up and elaborated by Roy M. Fraser in the final article, "The Motivating Power in Health Education", when he writes of the Junior Red Cross, wherein the child is a participant, not a passive receptor, as a valuable stimulus in health education.

This small book is one the teacher will do well to investigate, and the appearance of "vol. 1" on its cover leads one to surmise that further material of a similar nature is likely to appear.

F. Y.

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#### *A BOOK FOR PARENTS*

THE FUN OF HAVING CHILDREN—by Katharine Seabury. Lothrop, Lee and Shepard Co., 1935.

The carefree title of this book suggests a lightness in subject and style that is tempting to the reader, but is only partially confirmed by the content. In its preface the authoress describes herself as "merely a mother," writing for other mothers, "who prefers the guidance afforded by a study of the practical and successful experience of intelligent parents rather than the changing opinions of experts."

In the course of the following chapters, as the child grows from infancy to later adolescence, she discusses problems that are met by parents in connection with education, religion, discipline, social life and development, and illustrates by means of her experience with her own and other children. To her mind, the mother's is the key position in the family, the person nearest to the children and most able to help them.

The young parent who turns to this book for the light of "experience" may be a little bewildered by the varying moods of the advice given, for Mrs. Seabury, while deploring the instability of expert opinion, has obviously read much herself, rejecting what she found unsupported by fact in her own experience. Is she attempting to deny her intelligent reader that same privilege?



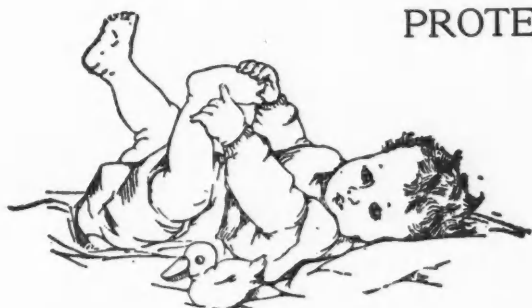
A similar inconsistency is at times apparent in her discussion of the child and his decisions. She desires a type of education that will teach the child to think, but at the same time would prohibit his attendance at the general run of moving pictures because of their probable bad influence on mind, health and morals. To be consistent, should the child not learn to discriminate between what is good and what is lacking in worth in a form of entertainment from which he cannot forever be protected? (That children can judge film values is demonstrated in a report of the junior group of the National Board of Review of Motion Pictures, 1935, where they gave first place to pictures based on works of Shakespeare, Victor Hugo and Charles Dickens. This in spite of Mrs. Seabury's quotations of adult opinions of the deleterious effects of motion pictures.

The importance and influence of the home in providing stability and a sense of values cannot be questioned, and Mrs. Seabury has built up a splendid picture of the understanding there can be between parents and children. The reader will find many situations described that are comparable to her own experience and not a few helpful suggestions, but it is to be hoped that she will retain her desire to read more widely in the expert field, and from all the evidence form her own opinions.

F. Y.

## CHILD CARE AND

## PROTECTION



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### CHILD PLACING IN CANADA

Substance of a Memorandum prepared by The Canadian Welfare Council in response to a questionnaire issued by the Child Welfare Committee of the League of Nations, 1935.

**I**N Canada, all legal provisions for child care rest within the jurisdiction of the nine provincial governments, and vary within and between provinces and municipalities according to the statutory provisions of these nine respective provincial units of jurisdiction.

In the eight predominantly English-speaking provinces, the protection and placement of children are handled under child protection enactments, which, in seven of the provinces, contemplate the actual assumption of the responsibility by a peculiarly Canadian institution,—the Children's Aid Society. The Children's Aid Society is essentially a voluntary association of philanthropically minded citizens, which must, however, have permission to operate through a charter granted by the provincial government, and which is subject to inspection and supervision by the public authority. Upon the Children's Aid Society, once established within any local area, the responsibility for child protection within that area is placed, the provincial official or public authority exercising supervision, and acting directly only within any area not served by a recognized Children's Aid Society, or in respect to children with no established residence or settlement within any such area. In only one of these English-speaking provinces is this practice completely abrogated in favour of direct exercise of child protection services by the provincial public authority.

#### The Pattern of Child Care and Protection

Under this system of child protection, child care is provided almost entirely by two groups of services — the Children's Aid Societies, which have specific status and powers reserved to them

by legislation, and the children's homes or orphanages, operated under private auspices, which provide care alone as distinct from the legal protection or custody which the Children's Aid Society also assumes. This statement is modified in practice though not substantially in principle by the fact that in all the provinces with such legislation, the provincial child protection authorities act also as a children's aid society in respect to children from any area, where no children's aid society functions, or who are without residence in any such area in that province. In the provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan, the provincial child protection authorities function directly and continuously as a children's aid society themselves, though there are four fully operating Children's Aid Societies in the latter province.

The Children's Aid Society, or public department where so operating, is contemplated as operating through two main lines of service,—its family protection division, giving care and protection to a child in its own home whenever conditions prejudicial to the child arise, and its placing and homefinding services through which the child is placed in other care, whenever continuance in his natural environment ceases to be safe for him or the community.

Under this system, each Children's Aid Society maintains a "temporary home or shelter" to which any child may be removed at any time by authority of the Society. This "temporary home" is frequently maintained in a private home, under supervision of the Society, especially in the isolated areas.

The Children's Aid Society, or public department where so operating, may receive children into care in one of three ways,—(a) upon application of their parents or guardians, upon voluntary admission, and for care only, with no transfer of guardianship, (b) for temporary care, through their family protection division, whereby the child is temporarily removed for protection, prior to court hearing as to the need of transfer of parental guardianship, (c) as "wards," whereby through regular judicial procedure (in the Juvenile Court if there be one with jurisdiction in child protection legislation in the area) the child is removed from parental guardianship (if proven deficient within statutory definition) and transferred temporarily (for twelve months) or permanently (until twenty-one years of age) to the legal custody of the Children's Aid Society. The Children's Aid Society then becomes, absolutely, the parent or legal guardian of the child and must discharge all parental obligations to that child.

The child entering the children's home or orphanage on the other hand enters upon voluntary admission, on request of parent or guardian, and without transfer of guardianship, except where this

privilege, inherited under the old indenture system, is retained by a very few of these homes of long establishment in the older provinces. Under the legislation of most of the provinces, when guardianship is sought for a child in a home or orphanage, with the exception of these homes with special privileges, the home or orphanage gives notice to the local Children's Aid Society, and the same judicial guardianship proceedings take place as if the child were being committed as a ward to the Children's Aid Society in the first instance, the home or orphanage having to adduce similar evidence as to reasons for seeking commitment of the child to this guardianship.

### **Institutional Placement Usually Temporary**

The Children's Aid Societies, from the establishment of the first Society in Toronto in 1893, have always operated on the principle of providing temporary care only in the "shelter", and of placing the child as soon as possible in a private foster home in the community.

In latter years, the most progressive children's homes and orphanages in Canada have also developed this same principle, outstanding being the Infants' Home, Toronto, which, although accepting only infants and children under four years of age for care, has no institution but cares annually for over 1000 babies in over 600 private boarding homes, and the Protestant Children's Homes of Toronto, which represents a homefinding and child placing agency, operating entirely as such, where fifteen years ago, two separate agencies operated two separate institutions — a boys' home and a girls' home.

Generally speaking the Canadian child placing system operates directly through the agency having the child in care, the agency itself, its service and standards and not its actual placement of the individual child, being under public supervision and inspection. The agency receives the child either by court order or on voluntary application by the parent for temporary, or "non-ward" care, and the agency then decides itself, having regard to the child's background and needs, and the agency's own resources, whether the child will be given institutional or private home care, and of what type (where any agency operates without any institution, it may board a child in a co-operating institution if some special cause dictates such custodial care). In most of the provinces, the public departments do not accept this temporary type of care except in emergencies, feeling that the private agencies, with their greater freedom for discretionary treatment, should, as far as possible, be especially equipped to take this type of case.

In those cases in which the provincial child welfare authorities directly exercise child protection or placing services, the same legal procedures prevail in respect to surrender of parental guardianship, and the public authority then places and supervises the child in care, through its own staff.

### Exceptions in Quebec

Though the Royal Commission on Social Insurance in Quebec in 1930 recommended the adoption of this same system of child protection in all communities over 25,000 in population, no such system has yet been adopted, and the prevailing system of child care is in children's homes and orphanages with the exception of the Children's Bureau of Montreal, which serves as a clearing house for all English speaking Protestant child caring agencies in that city, and follows a policy of placement in private homes and in affiliated institutions.

Of course, indenture may be used under the Apprenticeship Act in this province for placement in wage homes, but it is not widely utilized. With the exception of an extensive development of the Grancher system for the placement of children exposed to tuberculosis in private farm homes, Quebec may be said to provide for children in need of care, primarily through the traditional method of custodial care in institutions.

### Some Statistics on Child Placement

Otherwise, child placing in families may be said to be rather widely practised. In Canada at the time of the last Dominion Census (1931), there were 87 Children's Aid Societies and 3 placing services with 14,607 children in care, of whom 8,496 were placed in private homes, and 4,111 children were under care in their own homes. There were 78 child caring homes or orphanages, outside Quebec, with 4,994 children in care, of whom 101 were in private homes. In Quebec, the Montreal Children's Bureau had 228 children in care in private homes and 217 in institutions affiliated with the Bureau and for which the Bureau acts as the receiving and demitting service. In institutional care 41 homes and orphanages had 6,185 children in their care, while there were 5,330 children in care in 79 homes caring for adults and children together.

The totals for Canada were therefore

Children under care in their own homes.....	4,111
In private homes.....	8,496
In institutions : (a) outside Quebec.....	4,893
(b) in Quebec.....	6,185
In institutions caring for both adults and children.....	5,330



### **Some Conditions Under Which Children Are Accepted for Placement**

Preponderantly, children placed in private homes in Canada are naturally children who have been found to be technically "neglected" under provincial statute, and for whom a new guardianship has been created, vested in a Children's Aid Society, or the provincial child protection authorities.

Children in temporary care, upon the voluntary admission of their parents may also be "boarded out" if that is the policy of the agency which has them in care, but frequently this type of admission is made to tide over some emergency in the family only, such as the mother's admission to hospital, for instance, and consequently temporary care may be given in the institution or in foster homes.

Generally speaking, in the greater part of Canada there is definite opposition to the removal of the child from his own parents, on the ground of dependency alone, unless the economic disability is accompanied by some social disability as well, e.g., illegitimacy, desertion, etc., which seems to indicate the wisdom of this separation. The system of special allowances to needy mothers, prevailing in six of the provinces, allows for the payment directly from public funds, provincial and municipal, under supervision of a public investigation service, of monthly grants in aid to the widowed mother with young children, and in some provinces, to mothers in similar need from other specified causes. At present, some 14,000 mothers and over 40,000 children are maintained in their own homes, at public cost under "Mothers' Allowances."

The system has proved particularly effective in the placement of children of illegitimate birth, with the homes and service under special supervision, and payment provided, in part from maintenance collections from the fathers, in part from private funds, and in part, in some centres, from local municipal grants. The private home placement has operated to reduce mortality in this group to an almost incredible degree, the central service providing clinical and medical services for the entire boarding home service for the children so placed.

In certain provinces, the application of the system to the placement of delinquent boys and girls has had most satisfactory results. Placement on parole is made in specially selected homes, supervised by placement officers from the training schools, to whose care the young delinquents have been committed by the Courts. In some provinces, placement and supervision may be done by officials from the public welfare departments. These placements are all on a wage basis, the training school, Children's Aid Society or provincial authority as the case may be, being trustee for the

funds to the credit of the boy or girl, and the total amount so accumulated being paid over, upon discharge.

In three provinces, particular success has attended the placement of mentally retarded or defective girls and youths, after special training, under supervision in private homes for domestic and agricultural work. In these cases, the placement is made by a special officer, attached either to the training school for defectives, or to a co-operating social agency. The wages paid are credited to the boy or girl, and where either works out from a central hostel, a reasonable deduction is made for lodging. Small public grants are made to the hostel or agency handling the service where it is under private auspices.

As already suggested, marked progress has been made in Quebec in the development of private family care for children who have been exposed to tuberculosis. The system is borrowed from the Grancher plan in France and is built on rural placement, through a special provincial placement service, utilizing the parish clergy for supervision and the local county health units for health care. The entire cost is borne from public funds.

### **Types of Foster Homes**

Foster home placements are made in four different types of homes :

- (1) The Adoptive Home—where the child is placed prior to application for legal adoption. Most of the Canadian provinces require a two year \* probationary adoption period prior to absolute legal adoption. Adoptive homes offer in all ranks of life.
- (2) The Free Foster Home—in which the child is placed under supervision and in which maintenance and care are given at no cost other than the provision of clothing and school books. This type of home offers frequently in the home with one child, in which another child is sought "for company" but without adoption, or in the home where there are older children and one young child, or where the parents may be willing to give a home, but do not wish to accept the full responsibility of legal adoption.

However, the greater number of these homes offering are in the rural areas or with families who desire "mother's helpers" in urban homes. There has been so much abuse of the system in the exploitation of the child, in burdening him with heavy work and loss of schooling, that this type of place-

\* In two provinces this is one year while in several, it may be waived entirely on court order where the child has known no other home since infancy.

ment is viewed askance today, unless careful investigation has shown that the child is really offered a home for his own sake and not as a subterfuge for cheap help.

The placement of juvenile immigrants in Canada by British Societies, was found particularly open to these abuses.

- (3) The Wage Home—This type of home, like the free home, offers in the rural areas, and with the family of moderate means in town and city. The boy or girl is placed, generally, on a contract similar to indenture, for a wage that is too often nominal, and given maintenance and clothing in addition, in return for employment. It, too, has been open to abuse, and is utilized now by agencies of good standing only for placement of adolescents, youths and girls over school-leaving age. Some provinces restrict such types of placement to children over school age.
- (4) The Paid Boarding Home—The development of the paid private boarding home has revolutionized the outlook in custodial care of children in the United States and in different centres and provinces in Canada in different years. It is entirely different from the commercialized "farming out" of poor children that has so defamed the social history of this and other countries. It is based on two principles, that the normal environment for a child is family life in a good home, and that if it lacks this, it can be provided only in the same way as his other needs, by ascertaining what his requirements are, and paying for their provision. It has allowed for meeting the diversified individual needs of wide groups of children in the care of the social agencies, e.g. the delicate child is placed with a foster mother especially skilled in health care; the child with speech defect in a home where he will be patiently taught; the nervous child in a quiet and understanding atmosphere; brothers and sisters boarded in a compact, small family unit, etc.

The private boarding home has one other advantage over the free in that the agency placing the child, practically enrolls the boarding parents as employees and is therefore able to insist upon observance of its regulations and standards.

These homes are located by special "home finders", qualified workers attached to the private agency or the public department, as the case may be, whose duty it is to search out and maintain lists of homes suitable for the boarding of a child, and then to have the right home available for each individual child whom the agency must place.

There has been little or no difficulty in maintaining these lists. The centres and services maintaining private boarding home services report a much greater number of homes offering than are accepted, or acceptable, after careful investigation. The average boarding home accepted in Canada today is found in the average middle class workingman's, tradesman's, artisan's, or clerical worker's home, generally in the suburban areas of the cities, or in the average farm home of moderate means. Very frequently, the company and the pleasure of the child's care and the impulse to give a lonely child the privileges of home life weigh quite as much as any thought of added income.

In Canada \*, the Children's Aid Societies and most of the child caring agencies serve on a district basis and they organize their placement services accordingly. The large city agencies, realizing that most of their children will eventually live in the city, favour boarding homes in their suburban or metropolitan areas, though generally a selection of rural homes is maintained for special placements of young children, especially of infants.

The district children's aid societies and other local homes and orphanages generally make their placements in the cities or towns, and areas contiguous to their child caring shelters, thus facilitating supervision and giving greater hope of later placement in employment. There is also a considerable value in placing children within the area of the local "shelter" or home, because, as a rule, the citizenry take a definite local pride and interest in their child caring services and this usually carries forward into a friendly sentiment and practical sympathy in the wellbeing and progress of the children placed out. Also, it is felt desirable by many agencies that children should be placed in their own neighbourhoods when possible.

The value of life in the rural communities from the point of view of health and freedom is fully realized, but in the more extensive rural areas of most of the provinces, and the more remote districts of settlement, serious difficulties sometimes arise in respect to prior investigation of homes, supervision and assurance of schooling. Though the placement of older children, from ten to fourteen years of age, is frequently offered on a "free work home" basis, for these reasons it is not widely utilized or encouraged by many agencies of good standards.

In three of the largest cities, placement is related to hostel care, and working boys' or girls' homes are maintained under private auspices. These homes really act as a "half way house" between care in the social agency and independent employment in

\* Only in two provinces has the district system not been energetically developed: these are provinces of wide extent.

the community. They co-operate in the location of employment, and provide food and lodging, as well as recreational facilities, during "off time" at very moderate rates, for the homeless adolescent in the first two or three years of establishment in the community.

## **CONDITIONS GOVERNING PLACEMENT GENERALLY**

### **Agreement in Placement**

As already stated, with the exception of two provinces, the Canadian system on the whole is built largely upon the recognition and supervision of the services of the recognized private agency, and then the entrustment to it of the discharge of its responsibilities, rather than supervision directly of all phases of its work. Certain of the provinces allow no child caring service to operate without prior license and approval annually, while two prohibit the placement of any child in a home not its own without prior notification and consent of the proper official, but this provision has been found extremely difficult to administer.

As suggested above, placement of children in boarding home care is made in homes specially selected by the agency utilizing them. Though many agencies have special contracts with each foster home, covering the placement of each child, it is not uncommon for the conditions of contract to be entered into between the individual home and the agency, at the time of the acceptance of the former as a boarding home, and therefore to be on the basis of obligations accepted in respect to the care of any child boarded in that home.

Of course, in the case of an adoptive home\*, the contract during probationary adoption is a specific legal document, while in placements in free and work-and-wage homes, there is nearly always a formal contract between agency and home, or home and child, in respect to the terms of each placement. A few agencies use the same agreement, substituting the contract of adoption when adoption becomes final.

In addition to these conditions, in several larger municipalities, such provisions as exist in provincial legislation and administration for supervision of child caring agencies, are reinforced by municipal regulation, providing for the licensing of the agency itself, and governing especially the investigation and licensing of any private home in which children may be placed. Generally, these regulations are administered by the local departments of health, and apply particularly in the case of infants.

\* Where, as in two provinces, the natural parents must make the adoption agreement this, of course, does not apply.



## Costs of Maintenance and Education

Under the child protection system already described, the legislation of all but two of the eight provinces operating under it provides that when a child is committed as a ward to a Children's Aid Society, the municipality of the child's residence shall be liable for its maintenance at a stipulated rate \* as long as the child remains in the Society's guardianship, which may be until twenty-one years of age. The rate is calculated on a per diem basis and has been held by judicial decision to be the full cost of such care, including food, clothing, shelter, maintenance, special costs, clinical costs, supervision, etc., so long as such cost is shown to be reasonable. In certain provinces, this same payment may be ordered "pending the hearing and during the determination of the case."

In respect to non-ward children, or children given care without deprivation of parental guardianship, various procedures prevail. In some provinces, where the child is placed in the care of a Children's Aid Society or a children's home by its parent or guardian, the municipality, if a prior order to this effect has been issued, may meet the whole or partial cost of such care. Some municipalities make a definite per diem grant to the cost of all children in non-ward care, while in Quebec both province and municipality make equal grants, according to a schedule of per diem rates which is built on the principle of a residual, one third of the cost being met by private philanthropy, though this remaining amount so met is usually greater.

Other provinces and municipalities make "lump sum" grants to these agencies especially designed to assist them in the costs of their non-ward care.

On the whole, however, the greater part of the cost of non-ward care of children in these various agencies comes from private funds, either in payments (generally partial) from their parents or guardians, or from private donations.

In the case of delinquent children, every province provides either from provincial or provincial and municipal funds for the maintenance of all children committed as delinquents to custodial care.

In the case of mentally retarded adolescents, youths and young girls placed out, if the cost must be met, it is met by the provincial authority making the placement. Generally, however, these placements are made on a work and maintenance or wage basis, with a small per capita per diem grant from public funds for hostel care and supervision.

\* In Nova Scotia this rate is shared between province and municipality.

Thus it will be seen that it is not usual, in most of the provinces, to have any arrangement between a child's parent or guardian, and the boarding home, except where the guardian is a social agency. The agency deals itself with the parent and guardian, collecting directly from them any contribution they may be able to make towards payment, but makes its own direct arrangement for all board paid by it on its placement, charging the same to maintenance costs which are paid by public or private contributions.

### **Education and Training**

In these eight provinces of Canada, elementary education is free and compulsory, and consequently, all children are entitled to attend the regular schools. This right has been challenged in some of the smaller municipalities in which children have been boarded from city agencies, but so far as information presently available goes, it has nowhere been repudiated.

The legislation of all the provinces provides that in the placement of any child in care outside its own home, its religious faith must be protected, and no child of Roman Catholic parentage may be placed in a non-Roman Catholic home and vice versa.

The agency making the placement stipulates generally and supervises the religious training, education, health and general well-being of children placed under its supervision. In fact, in several of the larger centres, regular courses in child care and training are provided by the agencies for all foster mothers receiving any of their children for care.

The child so placed is entitled to the same school health, clinical or hospitalization services as are open to any taxpayer's child in the community, with the additional fact that generally, for hospitalization, such child, if entirely dependent, is entitled to such privileges as may exist for hospitalization of non-pay patients, with payment chargeable to the municipality liable for his maintenance.

Many of the larger agencies maintain their own staffs and clinics for health and mental care of their own children.

### **Age and Guardianship**

There is no restriction on the age of placement of any child: it may be made from infancy to the discharge from guardianship. A child may be taken into guardianship of a social agency at any age up to sixteen years in most of the provinces (in two, up to eighteen years in the case of delinquents). Guardianship once constituted, unless legally transferred, prevails until twenty-one years of age. The guardianship therefore rests with the agency

and not with the family caring for the child. If guardianship is still vested in the parent or guardian, the agency acts as their agent in the placement and supervision. Where special guardianship legislation does not exist, the common law provides the basis and duration of guardianship.

As already stressed, in Canada generally the agency itself is supervised and inspected, rather than its actual day to day discharge of guardianship responsibilities in respect to each child in its care. In all provinces, any agency found unsatisfactory, may have its charter cancelled, or be closed by order of the health authorities.

### **Liability of Family With Which Child Is Placed**

Child placing services, whether public or private, maintain their own staffs of supervisors, qualified workers in most cases. They are supposed to visit these homes frequently, and children are often transferred from one home to another, better suited for the care required. Unsatisfactory homes are dropped. In certain provinces no child may be boarded out except in homes licensed for that purpose by the provincial health authorities.

While the agency making the placement is either legally responsible as the child's guardian, or morally responsible as agent of the guardian for satisfactory placement and supervision, the Criminal Code of Canada, applicable in every province, renders liable to imprisonment for three years any person, who, having a child or other helpless person in their care, neglects, ill treats or otherwise permanently endangers the health or life of that person. Action lies through the ordinary courts, and this section has been invoked on several occasions. (Section 213 (2) and section 241, C. 36, R.S.C.)

### **COMPARATIVE RESULTS**

Unfortunately, few statistical returns are available that would justify absolute deductions as to home care versus institutional care, beyond quite remarkable evidence in the Infants' Home, Toronto, of the reduction in mortality, and an undoubted great advance in the avoidance of the inroads of contagious and infectious diseases generally so frequent in institutions.

On a cost basis, when capital interest and depreciation charges of institutional plant are included, the private home placement costs, even on a high standard, have been found to compare favourably, in the experience of some of our largest Children's Aid Societies and long established services like the Protestant Children's Homes of Toronto, which have changed entirely from institutional to private home care in recent years.

### **Family Placement Offers Flexibility**

From the point of view of the agency, the great advantage of private home placement is its great flexibility — unlike the big institutional plant, it can be expanded or contracted immediately with demand, and it allows for as many varieties of care as the needs of different children may present. From the point of view of the child, it allows for individual treatment, impossible in a large group, and gives him the normal home life and experience of community living, into which he is destined to fit, if the aim of child care be normal re-establishment in the community. Particularly has the system merits in a country of mixed races like Canada, where the young child particularly may be placed with people of his own race and tongue until familiar with our language and customs.

The movement has suffered from the zeal of its advocates who have tended to stress the foster home versus institutional care. Those Canadian agencies which have the most satisfactory developments to their credit argue for "the institution plus foster home care", maintaining that some small but adequate reception, shelter, and observation centre is essential as the centre of selection, transfer and placement of the children whom they are studying for private home care.

### **Meeting Its Dangers**

The dangers of the system are obvious,— the tendency to place children "on the cheap", in homes where, because of economic need, they may be sought for the boarding home fee, or in homes, already in receipt of other forms of public aid, in an endeavour to keep down costs. The tendency to "farm children out" for "their keep", in return for work, is also one of the evils that can very easily develop from careless placement by the overcrowded agency or financially harassed public department.

These dangers can be met by the education of the public, and consequent public enactments as to the necessity for the enforcement of minimum standards of investigation, placement, service and supervision as an essential part of any programme of child placing.

While several Canadian agencies can adduce standards and services of the highest standard, honesty compels recording of the known fact that in some of our provinces, some of the child placement in private homes is done carelessly and far too cheaply, with inadequate investigation, subsidies that are thinly veiled relief and insufficient to assure proper care, and under supervision that is too infrequent to be effective. There is also no doubt that too many placements are made of young boys and girls in work homes, for

such maintenance and pittance of payment, as border too closely upon exploitation. In some of the districts in which children are still admitted to care in poor law institutions, the standard of institutional care is similarly unjustifiably low, and too frequently associated with a system of cheap "farming out" of unfortunate children in the neighbouring districts.

In the province of Quebec, where, as already stated, institutional care on a large scale is predominant, it is, on the whole, on a high standard, because entrusted in most cases to Religious Orders, with long experience in the operation of child caring institutions. Quebec is known for an intensive home life, in villages and rural areas, and the large family of the French Canadian tiller of the soil is characteristic. This situation contributes peculiarly to the necessity of special care, when several young children of one family may suddenly stand in need of care outside their own home. Even in the homes of relatives and friends, frequently in humble circumstances, already, with their own small beves of children, "fosterage" of other children is not uncommon, but on the whole, the well operated orphanage of the Diocesan Religious Order, with its school related, offers an answer in keeping with the traditions and inclination of the predominant population of Canada's oldest province. Many of these Orders, recently however, faced with growing populations, especially of older children, are developing "Bureaux de Placement" for the location of adoptive homes, and free placements of older boys and girls on apprenticeship, or in agricultural or domestic employment.

### SPECIAL TYPES OF PLACEMENT

In Canada, in recent years, the practice has developed in several centres of placing children back with their own parents, with grants in aid, either through the public relief departments, or from the child caring agency, or frequently with the assistance of a visiting housekeeper service, in the hope of re-establishing the family as a unit. Of course, the Children's Aid Societies and provincial child protection authorities for years have followed the practice of *continuing* children in their own homes, under supervision. This is really an extension of the same principle with recognition of the need both of supervision and of economic aid. Precedents exist of the reconstitution of the parents' own guardianship again about the child in some such cases.

It is to be noted that with 14,607 children under care of the child protection agencies at the last Dominion census, 4,111 were under care in their own homes.

Under the system of *mothers' allowances* already referred to, some of the provinces, especially Manitoba and Ontario, have



developed fairly extensively private foster home placement under the supervision of the services administering mothers' aid whereby children doubly orphaned, or with the mother in an insane asylum, or under other special circumstances, are practically placed "at board" with payments on their behalf that would otherwise have been paid to the mother as a fit and proper guardian.

### **HOME CARE OF THE PRE-SCHOOL AGE BLIND CHILD**

(In Canada, most interesting developments have taken place in the private home care of the preschool age blind child. The following special note has been provided by E. A. Baker, O. B. E., General Secretary, Canadian National Institute for the Blind).

It is an undeniable fact that the incidence of blindness in infancy and early childhood is much reduced in recent years. This is due to several factors : first, improved measures for combatting ophthalmia neonatorum; second, improved facilities for clinical and prevention of blindness assistance to infants and children needing eye and health attention; and third, improved understanding by parents and guardians of health measures and eye attention necessary to avert serious and permanent trouble.

However, we are still faced with the necessity of recommending or providing care for preschool age blind children. In the last century, but little attention was paid to the mental and physical development of this group. On occasion, parents consulted with authorities, experienced in the education or the care of the blind, or with blind individuals as to what should be done. Generally, and all too often, however, parents treated such infants with effusive and even maudlin sympathy, to their obvious detriment. What school for the blind has not experienced children coming forward for education at the age of seven, quite untutored in proper methods of feeding, dressing, and caring for themselves? In the later days of the last century, and early in the present one, at widely separated points in the civilized world special efforts were made to provide special homes for the care and training of these blind children. In such homes, parents anxious to be relieved of the special care of their handicapped offspring lodged the blind child. Other parents anxious to take the best possible course were convinced that this special home was the proper solution of the difficulty. The result was that blind infants were collected from comparatively large areas, and even from distant points, and from the age of one or two years lost nearly all, and in many cases all, contact with home-life that is known by the average child. They became institutionalized even at this early age and perforce were passed on

to the sheltered life of a school for the blind until, at the time of graduation, they stepped out into the world with no experience of the life or even of the common every-day problems which they, newly arrived on the threshold of adult life, must face.

The Canadian National Institute for the Blind was organized in 1918. A program of services was prepared and gradually developed. Institute activities stimulated public interest generally, with the result that, in the very early stages, a small group undertook to establish a central home for blind infants. After considerable money had been raised for this object, the Directors found themselves confronted with a serious problem. In spite of advertising, they had not been able to locate a sufficient number of blind infants whose parents were willing to permit them to live in such a home to warrant its establishment. They then consulted with the National Council of the Institute. Since Institute registrations showed a comparatively small number of children between one and five years of age, and since these were scattered throughout the whole area of Canada, thus adding to other difficulties a separation by hundreds and even thousands of miles of parents and children, it was finally agreed that the establishment of such a home in Canada was not warranted.

To overcome the obvious disadvantage of a central home, both because of the institutionalizing factor and because of the severance of family ties, the Institute approached the Canadian Council on Child and Family Welfare.\* As a result, an arrangement was reached under which the Council, as a Dominion-wide organization working through provincial and local child welfare organizations, agreed to co-operate with the Institute in the case of all blind preschool age children. The Institute supplied pamphlet instructions to parents and guardians directly or through the agency of the child welfare council.

It was further arranged that any orphaned blind child, or one found in unsuitable home surroundings, would be placed in a carefully selected, suitable adoptive or foster home. Where necessary, the Child Welfare Organization would provide the normal maintenance requirements, and the Institute would supplement as might be required for additional care on account of blindness. This arrangement has worked out satisfactorily in several cases where it has thus far been necessary to provide. It is felt that the maximum benefits of suitable home care have been secured. This system of foster homes for blind children not only provides new home advice and family-life experience for small children, but it prevents them from becoming institutionalized in infancy. The system also has a financial value inasmuch as it avoids the use of public funds for an enterprise of highly questionable value.

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\* Now the Canadian Welfare Council.



## FAMILY WELFARE AND RELATED PROBLEMS

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### VICTORIA FAMILY AGENCY CONCENTRATES ON CASE WORK

ELIZABETH GRUBB

Secretary, Friendly Help Welfare Association, Victoria, B.C.

**F**OR the first time in 40 years, the City of Victoria has no longer a private family agency whose major programme is relief. In view of the large sums expended by the Friendly Help Welfare Association since 1933 on clothing, milk and other forms of relief, case work had of necessity, until the last few months, taken a comparatively insignificant role. Many factors entered into our recent decision to give up some of our relief activities, not the least of which was the difficulty of raising, by voluntary contributions, in a city of this size, an annual budget of \$35,000 for one organization. We had been employing, in addition to the General Secretary, four visitors and three office workers. During September, therefore, our case load was reduced to the lowest possible figure, and, after a gradual staff reduction, we were finally left with the General Secretary and one office worker.

On October 1st we embarked upon a definite programme of social case work. With this programme in mind, it was felt that we must thoroughly equip ourselves for the work we proposed to undertake. It was, therefore, decided to employ in future only graduates of a school of social work.

Our budget for 1936 is \$8,000, including \$2,500 for relief, as against a previous budget of \$35,000, including \$25,000 for relief. This budget allows for an additional case worker. Instead of having a highly organized annual campaign, we have decided to approach individually, over a period of time, those who in previous years gave the larger contributions, and to add to this list of subscribers any others whose interest we may be able to secure. The Board members are undertaking this work, which is still in the early stages of development.

Education of the community is something to which we are giving a great deal of thought. We are beginning to find that a lasting impression is more easily made by word of mouth than by newspaper publicity, but that it requires much time and effort. Our case committee members, who can speak with first hand knowledge, are taking a large share of responsibility for this work.

It was by no means easy to apply our new system all at once. During the first month (October), 39 applications were received, of which 29 were on account of economic need. The situation was similar, though less marked, in following months. In the face of this, the attempt to make our relief giving purely constructive became a physical impossibility, though we have tried, as far as time allowed, to help each client to seek his own way out. This is where we meet the greatest challenge to our case work skill.

Picture, for instance, Alice S., who has left her husband and children and wants temporary relief until she can find work. It does not occur to Alice, or to the person who suggested that she apply to us, to ask for help in dealing with her marital problem. She does not want to discuss it, thinks it is no one's business but her own, and does not face the greater difficulties towards which she is steering. If we are to help Alice adequately, we have to accept her as she is now, and to try gradually to show her how we may offer her more constructive service.

Difficulties such as this have shown us the need for explaining case work, not only to the general public, but also to other social agencies, some of whom have not grasped the significance of our change in policy. Cases are not unknown to us in which an individual, or a non-case-working agency, has made complete plans for a family, and has asked us merely to foot the bill. Should the proposed Council of Social Agencies materialize, this should give us an excellent opportunity of putting the possibilities of our work before other workers.

We fully realize the fact that our name, with its long local association, suggests relief, and are already considering the possibility of changing it or of adding something to it, that it may more adequately describe our newer work. The Board has been greatly interested in a report recently received from the Family Welfare Association of America, in which this question is discussed. In this report it is pointed out that private agencies may have to be more explicit, and to offer service along definite lines, rather than family case work in general.

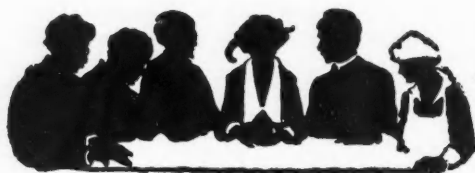
At the present time we are rendering one definite service in addition to our regular work. The Child Guidance Clinic and the adult Psychiatric Clinic, conducted by the Provincial Government, with headquarters in Vancouver, are now regular visitors to Victoria. Many cases are referred for examination by these clinics, where no other social agency is available to prepare and follow up the case. This we have undertaken at the request of the clinic staff, and we are finding that it gives us new contacts and a new professional status in the community. Some of these patients are not facing economic problems.

The division of responsibility between public and private agencies is at the present time in the forefront of our minds. The city, through its relief office, is now supplying a minimum allowance for shelter, food and clothing to unemployed and destitute families. The script given for clothing, which is small, is supplemented by second-hand articles, collected and distributed through a special department at the City Relief office. This department is in charge of one of our former visitors, who has enlisted volunteer help. The city has also taken over the provision of extra milk and surgical appliances in case of sickness. All these services were previously rendered by the private agency.

As a general policy we do not supplement the city relief scale, but in individual cases we have found this necessary in order to preserve family unity or prevent mental breakdown. Such supplementation is, as far as possible, handled on a case work basis, and is not a duplication of what the city is doing. We find that about 50 per cent of our "under care cases" (i.e., those to whom we try to give intensive case work service) are in receipt of relief from the city. If, or when, the city assumes responsibility for case work treatment in its own cases, this ratio will naturally be radically altered.

To any family in our "under care" group we are willing to give what is available to us in the way of used clothing or household equipment. We also supply used clothing to families not on relief, though the demand from this group has so far not been large. Should this increase to any great extent we shall have to seek other methods of handling this problem.

We are careful to keep the city informed as to which of its cases we are handling, and we find frequent conferences are necessary in order to avoid duplication and waste of effort. Even in spite of a desire on the part of both organizations for co-operation, difficulties arise in the details of division of work that are not easy to solve. The fact that the relief scale is often inadequate to meet the needs of maladjusted persons, who consequently appeal to the private agency, is something that we are considering at the present time.



## COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION

### NEW WAYS OF HELPING IN FAMILY SERVICE

(CONTRIBUTED)

"DOES this latest change in your name\* mean a divorce, or a death and re-marriage, or what?" asked a former city resident in conversation with a Board Member of the Family Service Bureau of Hamilton. "Well," came the reply, "one might say there *has* been a divorce in this particular family agency—a divorce from the wholesale relief giving into which we seemed to have gradually worked from 1930 to 1933. It was in 1933 that the old City Relief Office was reorganized. (Do you remember the ancient place with its tiny window for the relief applicant and the shutter that was drawn across to terminate an argument?) It became the Public Welfare Department with an enlarged program of relief giving. This included "relief" also to the workers in our private agencies—relief from what had grown to be almost their sole task—a distribution of dollars and cents. It permitted time for what, to them, was more soul satisfying—the meeting of other than material needs, with which they had been futilely faced from day to day. In order to meet these other needs in the best possible way, our staff has been strengthened. At first, some of us did not see the need of a staff specially trained, as well as with some experience of life, but now we are convinced.

#### **Closer Partnership with Public Agencies**

"Yes, I believe there has been a marriage too, or closer drawing together anyway, of the private and public agencies. The latter visit their families every two weeks and, while many social workers have said it cannot but be bad for a family to have one visitor about relief and another giving case work service, our experience does not bear that out. Perhaps one reason is a changed attitude toward civic relief on the part of the recipient, as well as others. In any event, our Bureau does not for the most part realize any weakening of relationship with the family through not handling the general relief—but rather the reverse, as, for one thing, there is not the necessity for regular, time-consuming and meticulous checking of income which may be quite irrelevant to the problem or trouble in hand.

\*"Family Service Bureau" is the new name recently adopted by The Family Welfare Bureau of Hamilton, Ont.



"At the same time, it is all important that there shall be the closest possible co-operation between the two visitors. To this end there is frequent consultation between the individual workers of both agencies, resulting in an increasing confidence.

"With this division in the family-work field, there is evidence of a clearer understanding on the part of the general public of what is meant by 'other relief needs'; and seldom is the old saw now heard: 'Why such a salary budget to dispense a little bit of relief?' Oh, yes, of course, we still have a relief budget. This more intelligent understanding of case work service is bringing to the Family Service Bureau a large number of persons from the economically independent group, more than one of whom has recently offered payment in return for service rendered.

### **Areas of Intensive Service**

"Our Policy Committee, in February 1934, determined on more thorough work with a limited case load, rather than a thin smattering over a large area. A tentative basis of what type cases should be undertaken for major care was drawn up. It was suggested that preference, as far as possible, should be given the younger married couples. You ask what about the others needing service, what happens to them? In a good many of these some adjustment is made at the time of referral, as, being a community supported agency, we cannot turn them down flat. The 'chronics' are giving us, and other local social agencies, concern. A joint committee is, however, going thoroughly into the matter and hopes to work out some mutually satisfactory plan.

"As has been said more than once, the re-alignment in most cities of work between the private and the public agencies does not mean the former is left searching for work but, rather, is faced with which of the various avenues, different in each community, should be tackled by the private agency.

"About a year ago a request came from officials of the Hamilton Police Court, in view of the constructive work they had noted done by the Bureau in connection with families appearing in the Family Court, that they (the Court) might have the privilege of referring certain cases to the Bureau before formal action was taken by the Court — such action so often resulting in a crystallization of the trouble rather than a remedy for it. In this request was recognized an opportunity to demonstrate the value of a trained social worker in the Family Court, and one of the most efficient members of our staff was assigned to this particular branch of work. Encouragingly favourable comments have been received from both Court officials and lawyers.

## Community Group Work

"Another avenue brought into prominence by the changing times and along which this private agency has journeyed some little distance over a period of some five years, is that of so-called self-help groups. It was in 1930 that the first of these groups was formed, composed of about 25 mothers (selected for various reasons by the Bureau from its clients) and later giving themselves the name of 'The Northern Star'. The reasons for such a group were varied: the apathy and discouragement consequent upon lack of income, the hopelessness and tendency to seclusion on the part of many women, the too ready acceptance of others of a dependent position with complete lack of initiative or effort, due in part, it was decided, to a lack of knowledge. This last was evidenced particularly in regard to the making and re-making of clothing, preparation of meals and care of the sick.

"The success of the 'Northern Star' encouraged the formation of other groups with a wide variety of interests and activities, including besides sewing, nutrition and home-nursing classes, folk-dancing and other recreation, as well as parent education. This winter there are 12 groups in enthusiastic operation. The initiative for their resumption came from the mothers themselves. While these groups are under the supervision of the case worker in whose district they are, the leaders are volunteers—from the most part older members of the Junior League. Some money is donated to the clubs for materials but in several they earn their own. A mother who had belonged to one of these clubs, this month wrote the members a letter from another city to which she had moved: 'Do not leave all the work to your leaders. Remember that what you get out of the club largely depends upon what you put into it.'

"The history of the Amity Club groups for the fathers, which commenced a little later than those for the mothers, is much less uniform. They functioned more or less successfully for three years, with a weekly meeting and a Family Night held once a month. The leaders (composed of young business men, five of them Bureau Board Members) formed in the spring of 1935 the Amity Association of Hamilton with a Provincial Charter. At the beginning of this season it was left with the men whether or not the individual clubs be carried on. The members of only one club voted to retain their identity, and these are now aligned with the church which had all along given them accommodation. The leaders are members of this church and also of the Amity Association but the group is non-denominational and without any religious propaganda in its programme. At the Christmas party one member said, 'Well, here

we are in a Presbyterian Hall with Baptist trestles under the tables and an R.C. carving the turkey.'

"The rest of the membership is merged into activities of the Amity Association Work Shop. The object of this work shop, which is carried on in a disused factory building, is to provide needed furniture for the families of unemployed married men. It is on a self-help basis. The men themselves do the work of repairing or making the required furniture, recommendations for which are given by the Family Service Bureau. There is no cash transaction, but a credit of work hours.

### **Dale Community Center**

"A project that was started as an experiment about 18 months ago, and is settling down into a permanency, is the Dale Community Centre, named for Professor J. A. Dale, the second Director of the Social Science Department, University of Toronto. The neighbourhood in which this is located is somewhat isolated, geographically, from the rest of the city. Seventy-five per cent of the men of the district are industrial workers, unemployed and on relief for four or five years past. Most of them are British in origin, many of them were former mill-hands from Lancashire, ship-yard workers from Glasgow, or Welsh miners from the Rhondda Valley. Some were still struggling to purchase their homes, having been caught by the depression. Some had seen their homes go and were living in rented houses, while less industrious folk occupied the rooms whose walls had been papered with such great care and the city paid rent for them too. A branch office of the Family Service Bureau is in the Public Library of that district. The librarian has, throughout, been most interested and helpful in the venture, which all started through a deputation from an 'association' of unemployed men. They were scornful. They asked the Bureau visitor to define the usefulness of her function to them and also to tell them what value the Community Fund had for them. They hurled their collective family problems at her head, metaphorically speaking.

### **Prospective Clients Talk Back**

For an hour and a half the quartette discussed these matters, when an amicable parting took place, the Visitor having accepted the challenge to give an address on the subject at the next meeting of their welfare group. She attended, was given an unbiased welcome, was listened to with close attention and interest, and answered many questions.

"The results of this contact have been varied and surprising. The unemployed group were quick to grasp the Visitor's explana-

tion that she was not a 'cupboard' but a 'consultant', although she would do her best with and for them in fishing in the community for their individual needs. She did not turn a hair at their violence or their political views, which were widely at variance. She grasped that the Association was really a 'Political School for Beginners' and numbered among its members representatives for almost every type and shade of political thought. She was also informed of, and saw and ignored, personal behaviour problems with many of the active spirits. She came to the conclusion that case work could only be proffered when asked for and that the exigencies of leadership would sift the wheat from the chaff by a logical process. She became a kind of confidante, for they told her their dreams and ambitions, their frustrations and fears. She became advisor as to reading matter and both fathers and mothers began to use the library in an effort to educate themselves. The need was recognized of outlets for self-expression. Their own leaders urged on them the necessity for self-discipline, training and education if they were to make themselves a power in the community. The Visitor encouraged them in these goals of endeavour and brought them what help she could from the outside.

### **As Many Angles as a Star Fish**

"To go into all the details of development would be a long story and I do not wish to tax your patience too much," said the Board Member, "but the thing now has about as many angles as a star fish. McMaster University has been a vast help in supplying speakers on all sorts of subjects. At present a Workers Education Association class is in progress discussing Economic Current Events. Last winter a psychiatrist took an evening group of working men for parent education. The class for mothers was not so successful and this year the subject is being approached from the other end. A student in Child Psychology, with the help of an instructor in a local Nursery School, is training a group of pre-school children at the Centre, while their mothers attend cooking and sewing classes. This volunteer spoke at a recent Board Meeting and her enthusiasm won us all over to thinking a Nursery School was the only thing, although to begin with most of us had thought it just another new-fangled notion.

"The Centre has temporary use of a building. In addition to the activities already mentioned, there is a class being formed for weaving and knitting. A deputation of 15 visited the Guild of All Arts at Scarborough, Ontario, and as a result purchased a loom with some of the money they had raised.

"At a meeting of a co-operative council formed by the Bureau in this locality, there was considerable discussion of the develop-

ment of this Centre. One of several clergymen present called at the Bureau a few days later and said he had been pondering on what principles lay behind the work of the Bureau that such successful contacts had been possible with well-known difficult personalities. This gave an excellent opportunity for a discussion of the principles of case work. He went away saying he intended using the material in a sermon.

"The Bureau is grateful to McMaster University for help and interest along various lines, including a Housing Study which is being carried on in conjunction with the Sociology Department.

"No, we feel very sure that it is not a question of the private family agency finding something to do, but of determining the most important thing to do first. Of far greater concern to the Bureau is the increasing pressure, due to inadequacy of staff, to meet the needs for service. Also, a growing conviction of the need for service in greater degree proportionate to the relief upon which, notwithstanding improved economic conditions, many families will be obliged to depend for some time to come. And further, that the developing and strengthening of both public and private agencies should go hand in hand toward this end."

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## **CONFERENCES, NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL**

### **The International Conference in London**

"Social Work and the Community" will be the central theme of the Third International Conference on Social Work, to be held in London, from July 12th to 18th, 1936.

Conference members will be divided into five commissions, according to their preference, and these groups will examine in detail the bearing of various types of social work upon the general subject, presenting their findings to the final general session. Subjects scheduled for discussion in the general sessions, morning and evening, are — "Social Work and the Community", "Recent Changes in Local Community Life", and "The Aesthetic, Social, Moral and Spiritual Effects upon Community Life of Social Services". Commission meetings will be held in the afternoons.

Visits to social work centres and institutions in London and an all day excursion to Oxford have also been arranged as part of the programme.

### **International Summer School**

Prior to the conference, from the 5th to the 11th of July, there will be held an International Summer School on Social Work in

Great Britain. In the provision for such a school the conference committee has followed the precedent established by other countries which have previously entertained the conference. In view of this arrangement the summer school of the International Committee of Schools of Social Work will not be held in 1936, and it is hoped that all those interested will take part instead in this summer school.

### **Study Tours**

Following the conference a number of special Study Tours have been arranged for those interested by the Field Studies Committee of the Institute of Sociology, Le Play House, 35 Gordon Square, London, W.C. 1. (This is also the address of the conference headquarters).

For further information in respect to this Conference, Canadians may apply to A. E. Grauer, Assistant Professor of Social Science, University of Toronto. Professor Grauer is Chairman of the Canadian Committee cooperating with the International Conference Committee.

### **Canadian Conference 1937**

The Canadian Conference of Social Work will not meet until the spring of 1937, according to a statement received from Major C. S. Ford, Commissioner of Public Welfare, Ottawa, and President of the Conference. It is hoped that the Executive Committee of the Conference may meet before that time in Ottawa.

### **National Conference, Atlantic City**

The National Conference of Social Work and its Associate Groups, will meet in Atlantic City, May 24 - 30, 1936. It is anticipated that there will be a considerable attendance of Canadians, especially from Eastern Canada, at these meetings.

M. B.

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### *MORE ABOUT COMMUNITY CHEST CAMPAIGNS.*

Subsequent to publication of community chest campaign results in the last issue, a corrected total was received from Winnipeg of \$273,600 raised from private subscriptions, exceeding the previous year's mark of \$271,600 by approximately \$2,000

La Federation des Oeuvres de Charite Canadiennes-Francaises will launch its campaign for the current year on April the eighteenth.



## PUBLIC WELFARE SERVICES

### THE NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT COMMISSION



JUST as the March issue of "Child and Family Welfare" is at press, official action has been taken to constitute a National Employment Commission.

Under the heading "Administration of Unemployment Relief and Provision for National Advisory Committee," the Honourable Norman McL. Rogers, Dominion Minister of Labour, moved the reference to committee of the following proposed resolution on March the 6th, 1936, saying :

"His Excellency the Governor General, having been made acquainted with the subject matter of this resolution, recommends it to the favourable consideration of the house.

"That it is expedient to bring in a measure to provide for the establishment of a commission, to be known as the national employment commission, to supervise or administer the expenditure of funds voted by parliament for unemployment relief and for providing employment, and for other purposes related thereto; and to provide for fees or compensation and for the travelling and living expenses of the commissioners, for the salaries of the secretary and other employees of the commission, and also for the travelling and living expenses of the members of a national advisory committee."

Since 1931, the Canadian Welfare Council has consistently urged that the organization of employment and relief measures should be placed in the hands of an independent National Commission of an advisory nature which would collaborate with the provinces, municipalities and private agencies in developing a constructive plan of treatment and services to deal both with the relief of unemployment and the dependency arising from it. It is therefore with considerable satisfaction that Council members will welcome the introduction of this resolution to the House of Commons.

C. W.

## A REPORT ON CANADIAN RELIEF CAMPS

The continuance of Canada's relief camps for transient and homeless men is necessary for a temporary period, but it is eminently desirable that the camps, "whether operating on the present basis or any other relief basis, should be closed as soon as possible in the best interest of the state, and for the sound healthy development of the majority of the men now in the camps". This is the advice of the first tentative report submitted by a committee appointed by the Dominion Government last November to survey Canada's relief camp situation and advise on future policy. R. A. Rigg, Director, Employment Service of Canada, Humphrey Mitchell, former Labour Member of Parliament for Hamilton, and E. W. Bradwin, of the Frontier College, constitute the committee.

The majority of men now in the camps are men of mature age who are yearning for the opportunity of returning to normal remunerative employment in public service or private enterprise. There is a goodly percentage of younger men with similar aspirations to return to industrial, commercial or agricultural employment. And there are many young men from eighteen to twenty-five years of age who have never had other than occasional or casual employment, discouraged youths, "who have few visible grounds of hope for the future" and are an easy prey to subversive influences. Those three groups, the committee contends, should be removed from the camps as speedily as possible. While it is acknowledged that present opportunities in private industry and agriculture are insufficient to absorb any great number of these men, the committee believes that it is of the most pressing importance that very determined efforts should be made to explore the resources of Canada, both public and private, to develop fields of employment where these men may engage in useful work at current wages and become self sustaining.

"Camps have played a notable part in the development of Canada in the past and will continue to do so for many years to come. Under normal conditions they attract for certain seasons of each year, from 80,000 to 120,000 men who have chosen lumbering, mining and railroad construction work in preference to other avenues of employment. It should, however, be borne in mind that many of the men in relief camps today are unsuited by background, training and adaptability for regular camp life, and are merely awaiting, with varying degrees of patience, the first opportunity that may be presented to return to avocations more suited to their temperament and upbringing. Apart from those who may be classed as unemployable in the broad meaning of that term, relief

camp conditions cannot be regarded other than as exercising a baneful mental and moral influence.

"The idea should not be entertained that relief camps are a permanent governmental activity, but rather they should be regarded as a temporary expedient for meeting an emergency situation. At present, due to the prolongation of their existence, they constitute a serious danger, since the tendency must inevitably be that they will be accepted as a fixed, national institution akin to the Poor Law Work Houses of Europe, if their existence is long perpetuated."

The fourth group of men now found in the camps is comprised of a substantial number of older men "who through age, coupled with the deteriorating influences of several years of dependence upon public charity, will never again be able to successfully compete for jobs in the open labour market."

After investigating the administration of camps in the United States, the committee visited some fifty relief camps in Canada, and found the physical conditions in the camps satisfactory, on the whole. The provisions made in all camps for the general comfort and health of the men, and to provide some of the amenities of life and afford opportunities for recreation and educational pursuits were commended. Tribute was paid also to the previous administration of the camps under the Department of National Defence :

"The Department of National Defence has built up an organization that has been fair to the men under its charge, and efficient in the administration of the various activities in the management of the camps. The work is being carried on in addition to the ordinary departmental duties, assisted by a small civilian staff, reflecting a decided saving to the Exchequer. It should be pointed out that the staff officials of the Department of National Defence, are by training eminently suited to the task of organization work of this character, and in this regard have rendered a distinct service during a most trying time. To brand the camps as military establishments is unfair. In our inspection not the slightest trace of the general conception of military discipline was in evidence. In fact, the officers of the Department of National Defence have leaned backwards in this regard. Not one man was seen in military uniform. Those in the Service whose duties carried them into the camp wore civilian clothes. As far as we could observe, the administration is of a non-political character, a factor of vital importance in an undertaking requiring the utmost discretion if serious trouble is to be avoided. In this connection, if it is thought desirable that some changes should be made, consideration might

be given to the suggestion that the services of those branches of the Department of National Defence peculiarly suited to camp activities be retained."

Chief among the recommendations affecting administration, the advisability of a work-and-wages policy which would enable the men to "pay their own way" to replace the present 20 cents a day allowance with all necessities supplied, is stressed in the report.

The resentment not only of the men, but of public opinion generally, against the present system, the evident deterioration in labour efficiency in the camps, and certain abuses, such as the outside sale by the men of clothing supplied them, are cited as important factors to be considered in reviewing previous policy.

If such a policy were inaugurated, it is suggested that men should not be retained in camp for more than a six months period in any consecutive twelve months, and that a specified sum of money, deferred from their wages, should be paid to them on discharge. This, it is felt, would enable them to seek employment elsewhere and be self supporting, at least for a time.

The limitation in the size of camps to not more than one hundred and forty men and the substitute term of "Emergency Work Camps" are also recommended.

Other recommendations are concerned with a more effective relationship with the Employment Service of Canada, with other means of facilitating the employment of the men outside the camps, and with the cultural interests of the men while they must remain in the camps.

M. B.

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## **CANADIAN CHAMBER OF COMMERCE RESOLUTIONS ON RELIEF AND ASSISTANCE**

### **National Unemployment Relief**

Extracts from a Statement of Policy of The Canadian Chamber of Commerce as Adopted at its Tenth Annual Convention in Toronto, February 4 - 6, 1936

The Canadian Chamber of Commerce notes with satisfaction the announced purpose of the Federal Government to establish an Advisory Commission on Unemployment Relief. It is urged that the Commission should be named and established in operation with the shortest possible delay in order that the basis on which the Federal Government will be prepared to assist in unemployment relief for the fiscal year commencing April 1st may be defined at the earliest possible moment.

The Chamber believes that the Federal Government should immediately take such action as will result in lifting the control of relief administration and financing directly out of the field of local political influence; and that the Federal Advisory Commission should be entrusted with the immediate responsibility of laying down policies and standards of relief administration equitably adjusted for different parts of the Dominion.

Such standards should be observed by each Province itself and enforced by each Province upon the municipalities therein, prior to and as a condition of further contributions in aid from the Federal power. The definition of and enforcement by the Federal Government of adherence to such standards would, it is felt, secure a maximum of efficiency in administration, both in assisting the individual in need of relief, and in conserving public funds.

The distinction should be drawn in the administration of relief between the legitimate requirements of those in real need and the illegitimate demands of those disposed to take advantage of relief provisions.

#### **Placing of Suitable Unemployed on the Land**

WHEREAS unemployment is now and is likely to be for many years a pressing national problem, and;

WHEREAS it is desirable to mitigate by every sound means possible the adverse effects of unemployment, both on the morale of the unemployed and on public finance and taxation, and;

WHEREAS many of those presently unemployed have either previous experience in or natural aptitude for the cultivation of land, and;

WHEREAS there are many fertile areas in Canada already possessing public services where the density of population is still low even for agricultural communities, and in which a "thickening-up" of settlement would be of great public advantage;

THEREFORE THE CANADIAN CHAMBER OF COMMERCE RESOLVES :

1. That the Federal and Provincial Governments be commended for such attention as they have given already to supervised settlement of suitable unemployed on small holdings of good land for the purpose of subsistence farming as distinguished from farming for export;

2. That they be asked to extend the principle of such settlement, as it has already been demonstrated that placing suitable unemployed families on proper locations has resulted in a substantial saving of public funds, and has been of immeasurable benefit to

the families concerned; since it has, in the majority of such cases, restored the morale of families so assisted, and is well on the way to re-establishing them on a permanent self-sustaining basis;

3. We further recommend such elasticity in the Federal Government's policy as will enable it to co-operate effectively with any province where special opportunities occur for furthering this back-to-the-land movement, and where some modification or enlargement of the general plan may be necessary to secure maximum results.

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## EMPLOYMENT RESEARCH

*By Leonard C. Marsh, M.A., B.Sc. (Econ.) F.S.S.*

*Director of Social Research, McGill University.*

*Published by the Oxford University Press, Toronto. \$2.50.*

This book was written as a guide to the programme of research in the Social Sciences undertaken in 1931 by the Social Science Departments of McGill University. This extensive research programme was made possible by a special five-year grant from the Rockefeller Foundation. Owing to the diversity of the problems that arise in the general field of human welfare covered by the term Social Science, it became necessary to narrow the field of investigation, and it was decided to concentrate on the problems of employment and unemployment. The book deals primarily with the various phases of these problems as they are exemplified in Canada, with specific attention to local conditions pertaining to the City and Island of Montreal.

A number of interesting maps, graphs and statistical tables are found throughout the book showing the age and sex ratio of the present Canadian working population, the main trades and services employing adults and juveniles, industrial and seasonal fluctuations in employment, and other apparent trends in the Labour Market. A statistical appendix and a bibliography both open avenues provocative of further and more detailed research of a scientific nature into our employment difficulties, which must be undertaken before we can attempt to look for any adequate solution.

M. T.





## DELINQUENCY AND RELATED SERVICES

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### INQUIRY INTO THE PENAL SYSTEM OF CANADA

ON FEBRUARY 28th the Hon. Ernest Lapointe, Minister of Justice tabled in the House of Commons, an Order in Council forming a Royal Commission to inquire into and report on the Penal System of Canada. The Honourable Joseph Archambault, Judge of the Superior Court of Quebec is chairman of the Commission and the other members are, R. W. Craig, K.C., of Winnipeg and Harry W. Anderson, Toronto Journalist.

The following specific subjects of inquiry are included in the terms of reference to the Commission:

The treatment of convicted persons in the penitentiaries, covering the investigation and examination of the classification of institutions; the classification of offenders; the construction of penal institutions; the organization of penal departments; the appointment of staffs; the treatment to be accorded to the different classes of offenders, including corporal and other punishment; the protection of society; reformative and rehabilitative treatment; employment of prisoners; prison labour; remuneration; the study of international standard minimum rules, and other subjects cognate to the above.

The administration, management, discipline and police of penitentiaries.

Co-operation between governmental and social agencies in the prevention of crime, including juvenile delinquency, and the furnishing of aid to prisoners upon release from imprisonment.

The conditional release of prisoners, including parole or release on probation, conditional release under the Ticket of Leave Act, and remission generally.

M. B.



## CHURCH AND SOCIAL WORK

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### THE RELIGIOUS EDUCATION OF THE CHILD

Abstracts from a recent address by Charlotte Whitton  
to the Home and School Council,  
Kingston, Ontario.

THE London Times Weekly, January 30, 1936, the Empire's greatest newspaper, in its editorial tribute to his memory stressed the late King's religion as "the very basis of his character and conduct". Then, commenting on his "typically English attitude towards the Christian faith" the article continues: "Religion of this kind often finds noble expression in a life of duty-doing. Anyone who faces duty in the light of such a creed will find in it not a mere impersonal code which he must obey, but a God-given opportunity which he can use. . . . Each of the innumerable tributes to his memory at this time will rightly insist upon his complete devotion to duty. Yet they must draw a false portrait if they ascribe this characteristic chiefly to the tradition he inherited or to his early training in the Navy, or indeed to any other source than his firmly held religious faith. The utter self-forgetfulness with which he set himself daily to accomplish the daily task, the unwearied search for opportunities of showing kindness, were the direct consequences of his religion. He could not think of the two parts of life except in this direct relationship. It was his first duty, he held, to be religious, and the first product of any religion that was worthwhile must be consistent duty-doing. Then and not otherwise he could rely on Divine aid in his tremendous task. . . ."

#### **Is Such an Expression of the Religious Life A Vanishing Ideal in These Troubled Post-War Decades?**

The modern state has declared, and is prepared to enforce, the minimum rights of the child to protection and responsible guardianship, to health and to reasonable opportunity of formal education and training which will enable him to grow into responsible and self-sustaining citizenship. But of the child's fourth and perhaps greatest need, there is far too little general recognition to-day in this country. The Church, or rather religious instruction and training, have withdrawn almost entirely from the general public system of education. The Roman Catholic educational units have retained religious instruction as an integral part of their

discharge of their responsibility to the young child. The Jewish community practically everywhere provides for formal education of its children after hours, in the "schule" or "Torah" under the rabbi of the synagogue. But in the general public school system and in the average Canadian family or home to-day, religious teaching of any kind is accorded a very small place. It is true that a fair percentage of our children go to Sunday School, but it is likely sadly true that the great majority of the child population of Canada to-day have less than two hours in each week in religious training in home or in school. There is no more pathetic denial of childhood's endowment than the atrophy of the child's religious sense and spiritual growth, for these intimate strengths, like any endowment left undeveloped, can but weaken and finally die. There is some question as to whether almost the entire generation of young Canadians to-day is not being carried forward on the inherited momentum of a strong moral sense and an appreciation of spiritual values bequeathed by the Victorian habits of life of their grandparents, which it has recently been fashionable to deride. Can this country reap other than tares if she continues the sowing of nonchalance, indifference and disregard in the inculcation of a sense of moral values and of spiritual life in her children?

### **The Sunday School Problem**

It is the public schools; it is those who profess other than the Roman Catholic and Jewish faiths, who should on the whole be chiefly concerned. True, the Religious Education Council of Canada has been bringing both knowledge and devotion to the whole problem, to the better equipping of home and church for the instructing of the young in religious knowledge and spiritual growth. But is the Sunday School enough? Is it in principle logical, in accord with a belief in religion as the supreme force in life? Can 166 hours of every week of the child's life be crowded with the teeming events of school, of home, of play, the great boon of rest and two hours at most be given to the knowledge and culture of spiritual life and religious truths, and any reasonably intelligent child be easily convinced that the community and adults who so plan, really believe that this relegated service will be the means of developing the fundamental strengths of his whole life?

The Church cannot, let us frankly face the fact, hope to accomplish in the presence of the stress and urge of material life, in two hours each week, more and greater things for the whole life of the child than the school in five days' teaching. The Church must have the home as its constant ally if it is to hope at all to serve the child's spiritual life to the degree that our secular services

serve his physical and mental needs. And is the average home in Canada to-day inclined, and if inclined, equipped to be the hand-maiden of God and His Church in this high function?

If we are constantly widening the concept of education through the school; if we continue more and more to regard its function as balanced development of the child for the good living of life; if we continue to introduce into the curriculum instruction in health knowledge and habits, in art, in music, in rhythm, in a score and more of the activities that can be held to contribute to the art as well as the business of living, can we much longer ignore the spiritual hunger and need which are as much a part of the intimate life of every human being?

There are difficulties involved in the introduction of formal religious education into the ordinary schools. Are they insurmountable, especially if that education be along the lines of fundamental spiritual truths rather than the formal dogma of any one church or sect? Do they offer greater difficulties in the development of special classes and technique than say the development of auxiliary classes? The church attendance records of most urban parishes are the answer to the argument that such instruction is the function and responsibility of the home, just as the health clinic cards reveal the degree to which too many homes cannot be relied upon to-day to safeguard the child's health and protect him against permanent impairment of physique.

### **What Do We Believe of the Religious Life?**

Are we or are we not prepared to bear witness to the strength and value of religion as a way of individual life, those of us who are so active and concerned on behalf of the wellbeing of child and family life in this Dominion? Is the nurture of the soul and a sense of religion to be deemed essential to the living of life, and of equal estimation with health, social wellbeing and general education? If so, must greater recognition of these facts not be made in the protection, nurture and development of child life? If the home is to be regarded as fulfilling this responsibility must it not be better equipped to do so? Must parents not be given the same type of help that is extended to equip them to discharge their responsibilities in the knowledge of health, habit-training, etc? Must the teachers and the schools not be equipped to meet the home half-way, to extend and supplement its efforts, as in these other fields of health, special training, recreation, etc? Is there not an inescapable challenge for an intensive consideration of the whole great problem of the secular school, the Sunday School, the home and the spiritual and religious development of the Canadian child,

particularly the Canadian child of other than the Roman Catholic and the Jewish faiths? For, as already suggested, those faiths, while not lessening the responsibility of the home, with the wisdom of venerable institutions have retained and are maintaining direct responsibility for the formal training of the child in religious knowledge and spiritual growth as part of the organized religious instruction of church schools, church and synagogue.

### **The Church, The Home, The School**

Where, then, does responsibility for training in the growth of the religious and spiritual life rest? With the Church, the Home or the School? Is it not with all three in a trinity of faith?

Generally the child is born with an endowment, capable of development to a full life; an innate spiritual strength and life are part of that endowment. Manifestly the first and earliest, and for all his infant years the strongest and longest influence in the nurturing of this spiritual life must rest, perforce, with the home. But, too many homes to-day which would be horrified at the thought of depriving that trusting young life of food or drink, devoid of religious life themselves, withhold from that little new being any sense of spiritual life or reverence.

### **The Home's First Gift**

Not that upon the home necessarily should rest the inculcation of formal religious instruction for the very young child. That is not religious training. Religion in life is after all a way of life, lived in the faith of certain beliefs carried forward in the hope of certain truths. It is the attitude of life; it is the inculcation of a sense of awareness, of love and reverence for a greater Power than ourselves, a loving confidence, a certain restfulness in that Strength that we look to the home to give to the young child. That first the home should give, without formal concept or graphic knowledge which, being beyond the grasp of the child's opening mind, becomes only empty phrase or an awe too great to be warm, a fear too overpowering to be anything but nervous fright.

The home must realize the limit of the little child's knowledge and experience and be happy if, slowly, a sense of reverence and but gradually other attitudes of love, trust, confidence develop towards a force which cannot be heard, felt, touched or seen, as with all the other experiences of life. And it is through these latter that the godlike qualities of the Deity should gradually be brought into the realm of the child's limited experience. The great central fact of the Christian faith can hardly be brought home by the Creed to the little child, but the love of his little dog is a very

real thing to him. He would go, unquestioning and unafraid to save that little dog from the flames or the deep waters into which he had all unwittingly gone to his danger; so indeed did the Son of God offer Himself, all blameless to die for those whom He loved so dearly, to save them too from suffering and death, blameworthy though they too had been.

### **Prayer**

In such a spirit, prayer becomes early what it must ever be if it is to be a power in the life of the grown mind, a communion between the spirit in man and the Pervading Spirit of God — a consciousness simply of resting, unafraid, confident, on a tide of overweening strength in which all things are understood because our needs are known before we ask, as well as our ignorance in asking, and the impulse to love and worship, whereof a trailing wisp is caught in the life of each and gathered into the ocean of Eternal Love.

### **Information**

Faith, rather than knowledge; attitudes of life, rather than facts; surely that is the beginning which is owed to the child's spiritual life and knowledge by the home. Then, gradually, let the assimilable facts come.

### **The Sunday School**

Then, at kindergarten age, let us say, can the Sunday School and the school not join the home in this great mission?

Can the Sunday School not take over the more formal instruction of the child on the great figures and truths of his own particular faith, on the inculcation of that degree of fundamental, formal knowledge through which the religious life and experience of his people shall come to be his? Pedagogy as a basis of training in our church schools should be as seriously regarded as sound pedagogy for those who staff our day schools, and the instruction given to the children should be similarly graded to their powers of comprehension, similarly related to the living of life, similarly intelligently and graphically presented. This knowledge thus imparted becomes a part of the equipment of living. The Bible lives. Its great figures live as people who have not always been dead. Its beautiful words become the life and thought of those who before us have trod "the path of pain, of splendid pain that leads to God."

### **The Day School**

And as the Sunday School carries on the child's more formal training in the tenets of his own religion, the day school may walk



equal pace with it and the home in formal instruction and development of the child's religious and spiritual life, as part of the attitude and method of life itself. The great facts and truths which are the common possession of all our Christian creeds, the lives of great men, the great passages of prose and poetry which, differing in time and place and peoples are all permeated — all of those of imperishable fame — with the inspiration and objective of Christlike living, become part of the school's contribution to the development of a religious sense as part of the conduct of living.

If there be among our secular teachers those who deny a religious faith and creed they can be released from responsibility in any of the formal religious instruction, while as to the responsibility of the teacher towards the preservation and development of the child's spiritual life, perhaps it is best to leave self-judgment to the teacher himself or herself. There can be few simpler, finer tests than the aged Wolsey's injunction as he hands over the seals of office to the Secretary, Cromwell :

"Let all the ends thou aimst at be  
Thy country's; thy God's and Truth's." \*

As the living of life becomes more and more complicated and social security is continuously challenged, does our greatest hope not lie in the secret springs of strength within each one of us? In conscious reliance and confidence on a greater Power and Strength than our own? That, after all, is, is it not, the whole purpose and end of all religious training that we should know?

For, indeed, the purpose of religious education must be not only to bring the child to God, but to bring the Spirit of God close to the child, and so to the man and woman in later life.

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\* King Henry VIII.

# FRENCH-SPEAKING SERVICES

## MORTALITE MATERNELLE

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L'ENSEMBLE des décès attribués dans la province de Québec à des causes qui relèvent de l'état puerpéral a donné une moyenne annuelle de 398 au cours de la décade 1922-1931. Ce nombre égale 1.1 pour cent du total des décès et place l'état puerpéral au dixième rang sur le tableau de la mortalité générale.

Pour étudier cette cause, on ne peut évidemment pas en répartir les décès sur l'ensemble de la population mais sur le seul groupe féminin. De plus, pour être plus justes, les calculs ne devraient porter que sur les seules femmes d'âge puerpéral. Mais cette façon de procéder n'est pas sans présenter des difficultés puisque, hors les années de recensement, nous n'en connaissons pas le nombre exact. Aussi, afin d'obtenir la meilleure représentation des faits, a-t-on généralement adopté le rapport des décès par l'état puerpéral au nombre des naissances vivantes. En procédant ainsi on obtient les taux suivants :

### PROVINCE DE QUEBEC

#### Mortalité par l'état puerpéral

Années	Taux	Années	Taux	Années	Taux
1896 .....	4.9	1908 .....	4.4	1920 .....	4.7
1897 .....	4.8	1909 .....	3.9	1921 .....	3.8
1898 .....	3.8	1910 .....	3.6	1922 .....	4.1
1899 .....	4.5	1911 .....	4.2	1923 .....	4.1
1900 .....	4.9	1912 .....	4.2	1924 .....	3.7
1901 .....	4.8	1913 .....	4.5	1925 .....	3.8
1902 .....	4.7	1914 .....	4.2	1926 .....	5.2
1903 .....	4.3	1915 .....	3.8	1927 .....	4.9
1904 .....	4.5	1916 .....	3.9	1928 .....	5.3
1905 .....	4.5	1917 .....	3.6	1929 .....	5.3
1906 .....	3.7	1918 .....	4.0	1930 .....	5.5
1907 .....	4.7	1919 .....	3.3	1931 .....	4.8

Notre situation, on le voit, n'accuse guère d'amélioration. Elle se serait même empirée depuis 1926. On s'en convaincra d'avantage en consultant le tableau suivant qui résume les taux annuels en périodes quinquennales et en périodes décennales.

**Mortalité par l'état puerpéral**  
**Périodes quinquennales et décennales**

Périodes	No. moyen des naissances	Décès par l'état puerpéral	Taux par 1,000 naissances
1897 - 1901 .....	57,301	260	4.5
1902 - 1906 .....	59,050	255	4.3
1907 - 1911 .....	63,511	284	4.3
1912 - 1916 .....	79,939	329	4.1
1917 - 1921 .....	84,041	326	3.9
1922 - 1926 .....	85,831	356	4.1
1927 - 1931 .....	83,146	428	5.1
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1902 - 1911 .....	122,561	539	4.4
1912 - 1921 .....	163,980	655	4.0
1922 - 1931 .....	168,977	784	4.6

Mais les taux que nous relevons chez-nous sont-ils exagérés? Comment se comparent-ils avec ceux des autres provinces? Pour le savoir, consultons le tableau suivant :

**Mortalité par l'état puerpéral**  
**Décade 1922-1931**

Provinces	No. moyen annuel des décès par l'état puerpéral	Taux par 1,000 naissances
1. Québec.....	392	4.65
2. Ile du Prince Edouard...	9	4.94
3. Manitoba .....	82	5.46
4. Nouveau-Brunswick.....	59	5.53
5. Ontario.....	390	5.61
6. Nouvelle-Écosse.....	65	5.71
7. Saskatchewan.....	123	5.77
8. Colombie-Anglaise.....	64	6.21
9. Alberta.....	98	6.24
<hr/>		
CANADA.....	1,282	5.33

La province de Québec est ici au premier rang. Son taux de mortalité maternelle (4.65) est inférieur à celui de l'ensemble du pays (5.33). Bien que notre natalité soit la plus élevée du Canada, notre mortalité maternelle est la plus favorable de toutes les provinces. Elle est bien inférieure notamment à celle de la Colombie-Anglaise (6.21) qui donne le taux de natalité le plus faible. Cependant, malgré notre situation assez favorable, il faut chercher à faire mieux encore si possible, car rien n'est plus tragique que le départ de la mère dans de pareilles circonstances. Afin de nous encourager dans cette voie, complétons notre étude par de nouveaux renseignements.

A.—Répartition par groupes d'âge de la mortalité maternelle.

Le premier procédé consiste à rapporter les décès survenus dans chaque groupe d'âge au nombre uniforme de 100,000 femmes des mêmes groupes d'âge. C'est le calcul du taux spécifique. Il s'établit comme suit :

### Taux spécifiques par groupes d'âge de la mortalité maternelle

Groupes d'âge	5 - 14	15 - 24	25 - 44	45 - 69
1921 .....	0.3	48.5	72.0	7.5
1931 .....	...	27.0	85.5	3.2

### Repartition proportionnelle par groupes d'âge des décès causés par l'état puerpéral

Groupes d'âge	5 - 14	15 - 24	25 - 44	45 - 69
1921 .....	0.09	23.92	73.60	2.39
1931 .....	0.025	22.81	75.00	2.165

C'est de 25 à 45 ans que surviennent les trois quarts de ces décès. C'est aussi au même groupe d'âge que les causes de décès par l'état puerpéral acquièrent leur plus grande gravité. Ce sont donc des vies éminemment précieuses que nous perdons ainsi.

B.—Répartition géographique dans la province, des décès par l'état puerpéral.

Il serait intéressant de connaître les comtés où la mortalité maternelle sévit le plus particulièrement afin de porter l'attention où il convient. Malheureusement la distribution de ces décès par comtés a été discontinuée depuis 1926.

C.—Répartition des décès maternels par causes.

Pour faciliter la campagne dirigée contre la mortalité maternelle et, par suite, les moyens prophylactiques différents que l'on peut diriger contre elle, il peut être opportun de partager en deux groupes les causes des décès classés sous cette rubrique, soient les causes qui interviennent avant la naissance de l'enfant et celles qui la suivent. Parmi les premières prennent place l'avortement, la gestation ectopique, les autres accidents de la grossesse ainsi que l'albuminurie ou éclampsie puerpérale. Les causes post-natales comprennent l'hémorragie puerpérale, les autres accidents de l'accouchement, la septicémie puerpérale, la phlegmosia alba dolens, l'embolie ou mort subite puerpérale, les décès attribués aux suites de couches et les affections puerpérales de la mamelle.

Quelle est l'importance respective de ces deux groupes? Elle peut s'établir comme suit.

## Mortalité maternelle

### Importance relative des causes postnatales et prénatales

#### 1.—Distribution proportionnelle des décès maternels attribués aux causes postnatales

Périodes	No. moyen annuel des décès par causes postnatales	Pour cent du total des décès par l'état puerpéral
1897 - 1901 .....	209	80.5
1902 - 1906 .....	196	77.0
1907 - 1911 .....	217	76.5
1912 - 1916 .....	242	73.5
1917 - 1921 .....	227	69.7
1922 - 1926 .....	242	68.0
1927 - 1931 .....	307	71.8
1902 - 1911 .....	206	76.7
1912 - 1921 .....	235	71.6
1922 - 1931 .....	274	69.9

#### 2.—Distribution proportionnelle des décès maternels attribués aux causes prénatales

Périodes	No. moyen annuel des décès par causes prénatales	Pour cent du total des décès par l'état puerpéral
1897 - 1901 .....	51	19.5
1902 - 1906 .....	59	23.0
1907 - 1911 .....	67	23.5
1912 - 1916 .....	87	26.5
1917 - 1921 .....	99	30.3
1922 - 1926 .....	114	32.0
1927 - 1931 .....	121	28.2
1902 - 1911 .....	63	23.3
1912 - 1921 .....	93	28.4
1922 - 1931 .....	118	30.1

L'importance des causes postnatales est prépondérante. Celles-ci réclament presque les trois-quarts de tous les décès maternels.

On se rend mieux compte de la marche de ces deux causes de décès par le calcul des taux que donne le tableau suivant :

#### 1.—Mortalité maternelle par causes postnatales

Périodes	No. moyen annuel des décès par causes postnatales	Taux par 1,000 naissances
1897 - 1901 .....	209	3.6
1902 - 1906 .....	196	3.3
1907 - 1911 .....	217	3.4
Périodes	No. moyen annuel des décès par causes postnatales	Taux par 1,000 naissances
1912 - 1916 .....	87	1.1
1917 - 1921 .....	99	1.2
1922 - 1926 .....	114	1.3
1927 - 1931 .....	121	1.4
1902 - 1911 .....	63	1.0
1912 - 1921 .....	93	1.1
1922 - 1931 .....	118	1.4

1.0

Les décès maternels attribués aux causes postnatales sont en régression légère sauf au cours de la dernière période quinquennale. Au contraire, les causes prénatales n'accusent aucune tendance vers le progrès.

Quelle en est la situation dans les autres provinces? C'est ce qu'il nous reste à chercher.

1.—Mortalité maternelle par causes postnatales. Décade 1922-1931.

Provinces	No. moyen annuel des décès par causes postnatales	Taux par 1,000 naissances
1. Ile du Prince Edouard...	5	2.91
2. Québec .....	274	3.26
3. Nouvelle-Ecosse.....	40	3.52
4. Ontario.....	254	3.64
5. N. Brunswick.....	40	3.75
6. Manitoba .....	58	3.87
7. Saskatchewan.....	87	4.08
8. Colombie-Anglaise.....	42	4.15
9. Alberta .....	68	4.31
CANADA .....	868	3.61

2.—Mortalité maternelle par causes prénatales. Décade 1922-1931.

Provinces	No. moyen annuel des décès par causes prénatales	Taux par 1,000 naissances
1. Québec .....	118	1.39
2. Manitoba .....	24	1.59
3. Saskatchewan.....	36	1.69
4. N. Brunswick.....	19	1.78
5. Alberta .....	30	1.93
6. Ontario.....	137	1.97
7. Ile du Prince Edouard...	4	2.03
8. Colombie-Anglaise .....	21	2.06
9. Nouvelle Ecosse.....	25	2.19
CANADA .....	414	1.72

Avec ses naissances plus nombreuses qu'ailleurs, Québec est ici en très bonne position. Nos facilités de traitement dans les cas de maternité se comparent avantageusement avec celles des autres provinces. Cherchons toutefois à les perfectionner encore afin de nous conserver le plus grand nombre possible des vies toujours précieuses de nos mères de famille.

## CONCLUSION

1. L'état puerpéral nous coûte une moyenne de 398 vies par année. Les chiffres des années 1926, 1928 et 1930 sont même respectivement de 427, 444 et 463.

2. Notre mortalité maternelle n'accuse guère d'amélioration. Le taux s'en est même augmenté depuis 1926.



3. Le nombre de ces décès n'est pas en corrélation très étroite avec celui des naissances. La province de Québec tient le premier rang sur le tableau de la mortalité ainsi que sur celui de la mortalité maternelle. La Colombie-Anglaise au contraire vient pratiquement au dernier rang sur les deux mêmes tableaux; elle a la natalité la plus faible et la mortalité maternelle la plus forte.

4. Le taux le plus élevé de la mortalité maternelle est donné par les femmes de 25 à 44 ans. C'est aussi à ce groupe d'âge que surviennent les trois quarts de tous nos décès attribués à l'état puerpéral.

5. Les causes postnatales de notre mortalité maternelle réclament pratiquement les trois quarts de ces décès. Le reste revient aux causes prénatales.

6. Les premières ont regressé constamment sauf durant les cinq dernières années de 1926 à 1931. Les secondes se maintiennent à des taux assez uniformes.

7. Les taux de mortalité que donnent ces deux causes dans la province de Québec se comparent avantageusement avec ceux qu'on relève ailleurs.

Pour améliorer encore notre situation, si possible, il s'offre à nous deux grandes directives :

(a) Mettre à la disposition de toutes les mères, lors de la naissance de leurs enfants et dans les jours qui suivent, les meilleurs services médicaux disponibles que réclame leur état.

(b) Maintenir sous une surveillance médicale toutes les femmes enceintes.

Comment réaliser ces deux desiderata?

Constatons d'abord que l'enseignement de l'obstétrique, dans nos différentes universités, est complètement à la hauteur de nos connaissances actuelles. Par conséquent, on peut immédiatement conclure que nos médecins sont bien préparés pour assumer les responsabilités que réclament ces cas. De plus, il est avéré que, dans la province de Québec, sauf dans quelques régions non encore suffisamment pourvues, les accouchements sont faits par des médecins. Ce fait, sans doute, contribue pour une bonne part dans la situation privilégiée que nous avons reconnue à la province de Québec. Voilà qui est bien assurément, mais la seule présence du médecin ne suffit pas.

Pour compléter son action il faut mettre à la disposition de toutes nos mères des gardes-malades graduées, chargées d'exécuter fidèlement les traitements qu'il aura prescrits. Dans une proportion trop élevée des cas, en effet, c'est une parente, une amie, une voisine ou une femme dont on a retenu les services qui s'im-

provisoire garde-malade et qui, malgré les meilleures intentions du monde, est totalement incapable, faute de préparation nécessaire, d'en remplir les fonctions.

Il s'agit, en second lieu, de retrouver toutes les femmes enceintes afin de les mettre sous la surveillance de leur médecin de famille pendant la période importante de la gestation. La consultation prénatale, complétée par un service d'accouchement, répond à ce second besoin de la lutte.

Puisque nous connaissons les éléments de la lutte contre la mortalité maternelle, mettons les largement à la disposition de nos mères expectantes ainsi que de nos femmes en couches et conservons chaque année à notre capital humain plus de 200 des unités précieuses que constituent nos mères et plus de 1,000 des 3,000 vies que réclame la débilité congénitale.

## WITH THE KINDERGARTNERS

### THE ROLE OF THE NURSERY SCHOOL TEACHER

A Nursery School Panel Discussion, held at the Convention of the Kindergarten, Nursery School, Kindergarten Primary Association of Canada on October 26, 1935. (*Panel Leader—Miss D. A. Millichamp, Assistant Director, St. George's School for Child Study, Toronto*)

#### Introduction

This is the first time in the educational history of Canada that those participating in, and interested in nursery school education have met together officially. For approximately ten years the work has been in progress, carried on in isolated centres of the country. Each school has been organized to meet the conditions peculiar to its own setting and is therefore unique. All have been working under innumerable difficulties, financial embarrassment, public misunderstanding and lack of trained assistance.

Today parents and educationalists are beginning to recognize that the nursery school has a real place in the community educational programme, and students are welcoming nursery education as a new field of enterprise. The time is approaching when it will be necessary to consider unification of nursery school education and so the discussion of the panel will centre around the problems and duties which the nursery school student may expect to encounter when she sets out as a professional worker in the field of nursery education.

#### The Role of the Nursery School Teacher in the Daily Routine

(*Miss M. I. Fletcher, Principal,  
St. George's School for Child Study, Toronto*)

Every nursery school teacher must master certain techniques and, what is even more important, must be trained to develop the attitude upon which the success of these techniques depends. These constitute the minimum essentials of Nursery School teaching. They will be considered under four main headings.

*Individual Behaviour of the Teacher:* Good judgment, alertness and foresight, accompanied by the ability to adjust to emergencies, are essential to the responsible position held by every teacher of very young children. This responsibility requires, furthermore, an ability to exercise control with a sureness which carries certainty and is at the same time unostentatious.

*The Staff Cooperation:* In the Nursery School two or more teachers are working with the same group of children. Each worker must therefore, when organizing her part of the daily programme,

consider every other part. Confusion among staff must be avoided at all cost as it is so easily communicated to the children. A staff timetable, strictly adhered to, a business-like attitude and an atmosphere of formality are aids to satisfactory staff organization.

*Adult-Child Relationship:* There should be a friendly and sympathetic understanding between teacher and child; a working together to overcome the problems of learning with assistance as the part of the adult, acceptance as the part of the child. Such an attitude is difficult to attain and maintain with the very young child.

*Techniques:* The Nursery School teacher must master the techniques involved in the teaching of routine habits, social and emotional control, interests and creative skills.

### **The Role of the Nursery School Teacher in Elementary Education**

*(Miss E. Margolis, The Hillcrest Progressive School, Toronto)*

The fact that nursery education principles are the principles of all education makes it possible for the nursery school teacher to take part in the education of kindergarten and primary aged children.

As the nursery school teacher stimulates early development through play materials so the learning of the three "R's" should spring from interest and a need to learn. Both the two year old and the six year old learn by living experiences. The only difference lies in the kind of experience. As he grows older the outside world must be made a part of the child's life. Contribution to group project and social learning must be a part of every child's education.

The discipline of the nursery school and that of the classroom have the same objectives, namely, to teach acceptance of consequences and to achieve self-discipline. The method of discipline in the two settings is the same, namely, the impersonal administration of consequences which follow logically upon the child's behaviour. The problems of discipline in the two age groups will, necessarily, be different. They will become more complex with age increase. The principles however can be applied throughout.

### **The Role of the Nursery School Teacher as a Parent Education Leader**

*(Mrs. S. Cohen, Parent Education Council, Toronto)*

The nursery school teacher is dependent upon the parent for cooperation in the task of guiding the child. It therefore becomes her responsibility to interpret the accumulated knowledge gained from her specialized training and experience to the parent. There are three main avenues through which this may be accomplished. (a) The casual daily contacts between parent and teacher may be

utilized, particularly for discussion of specific situations of an immediate nature.

- (b) Observation in the school, so arranged that the child is unaware of the parent's presence, gives her an opportunity to gain an objective picture of her child as one of a group, to watch his use of materials which have been designed to meet his legitimate needs, and his response to other adults. Such observation may be made the basis of valuable discussion.
- (c) Organized group discussion is perhaps, the most worthwhile method of parent education for the majority of parents. The nursery school teacher who understands the needs of the parent and can therefore interpret and adapt her own principles to the parent's problems will not only enlist the cooperation of the parents but make the nursery school of permanent value in the community.

*Panel Question:* Is participation of parents in the school of sufficient value as a method of parent education to warrant making it a permanent part of the nursery school programme?

*Decision:* Unless accompanied by a systematic course of training it is not possible to invest sufficient responsibility with parents to make the experience worthwhile.

### **The Role of the Nursery School Teacher as a Clinician**

*(Miss E. Stapleford, Ontario Hospital, Whitby)*

Within every group of children are to be found a minority who differ in some way from the group as a whole. A nursery school teacher requires some knowledge and experience in psychology and psychiatry if she is to deal adequately with these children. She must have a thorough understanding of normal behaviour at each developmental stage if she is to isolate the unusual with accuracy, and she must know what constitutes a normal environment if she is to distinguish between the normal child reacting to environmental difficulties and the child who, himself, deviates from the normal. More specifically, the nursery school teacher should have some understanding of mental development, and be able to interpret mental test figures. She should be alert to any indications of emotional maladjustment.

Together with the ability to diagnose deviations from normal behaviour she will require some knowledge in the treatment of these behaviour difficulties which may involve re-education of the parents; adaptation of routine techniques to problems of eating, sleeping, etc; variations of discipline to meet social and emotional maladjustments or re-arrangement of the environment to accommodate cases of mental deficiency and acceleration. The nursery school teacher who is able thus to recognize, to determine the

cause of and to treat ordinary behaviour problems has added much to her own satisfaction in her work and has broadened the scope of her service to the pupils and to the community.

### **The Role of the Nursery School Teacher in the Private Community Nursery School**

*(Miss B. Bolton, The Christopher Robin School, Hamilton)*

The nursery school teacher who is in charge of the private community nursery school has certain very specific requirements to meet and problems to solve. She may be delegated to search out a building for the nursery school, to decorate, to furnish and equip it. Such a task requires not only a detailed knowledge of every phase of the nursery school but, in addition, ability and experience in household management.

The latter would not be so difficult a task if the nursery school budget were unlimited. However, the community nursery school budget is almost always small and is seldom elastic. The nursery school teacher must be a good manager and must use ingenuity in securing her equipment.

Frequently, in a community nursery school the parents themselves assist in the nursery school. The teacher in charge must supervise and train these parents. The whole responsibility of attaining and maintaining a smoothly running routine rests upon her shoulders.

### **The Roll of the Nursery School Teacher in the Crèche Nursery School**

*(Mrs. G. G. Brown, West End Creche, Toronto)*

The nursery school teacher in the creche must adapt her school organization and her child training to meet the specific needs of the underprivileged child. Her routines, particularly eating and sleeping, are planned to supplement and correct those of the home. Health and cleanliness become problems of paramount importance. While more independent than the average, the child in the underprivileged community often shows a sense of insecurity due to unstable home conditions. Certain forms of anti-social behaviour are more prevalent, language difficulties make adjustment longer. A careful and consistent discipline becomes therefore necessary and new techniques must be invented to meet the peculiar circumstances.

Parent education is an important part of the creche nursery school programme. Here again, the teacher must, in her parent education programme, re-adapt her principles to meet unusual home conditions, where a normal routine is impossible. It is necessary that she understand and accept the unstable social background of the families and set her standards accordingly.







(Continued from inside front cover)

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Reprints

- (1) Some Considerations re Health Insurance.
- (2) Some Considerations re Unemployment Insurance.
- (3) Administration of Clothing Relief.
- (4) Activities of the Department of Public Welfare, Toronto.
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- (10) Parent Education and Social Work.
- (11) What is Wrong with our Christmas Giving?
- (12) Britain's Social Services.

Recent Statements on Relief Trends in Canada:

The Relief Outlook—December 1934.

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L.T.A. Publ'n No. 1-12. Recreation Bulletins dealing with various phases of recreation are available on request.

L. T. A. Publ'n No. 12, Community Gardens.

Charts—(Wall Size)—

- No. 1. 7, 10, 14. Infant Mortality Rates in Sixty Canadian cities (Statistics 1924, 1925, 1926, 1927).  
No. 9, 13, 16. Is your District Safe for Babies? (Rural Infant Mortality Rates, 1925, 1926, 1927).  
No. 17A-B-C. Does Your City Lose Its Babies? Statistical Report of Infant Mortality in Cities of Canada. (Five Year comparison, 1926-30). 1932.  
No. 2, 8, 11, 15. Why Our Babies Die. (Statistics, 1925, 1926, 1927, 1928).  
\*No. 4. Illiteracy Brings Illiteracy, 1921 Census.  
\*No. 5. The Vicious Treadmill (Illiteracy in Cities—1921 Census).  
\*No. 6. Child Placing is Child Saving.  
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\*No. 12. A Blot on the Map of Canada. (English and French)

Posters (at cost)—No. 1. "The Gay Adventurers."

\*No. 5. "Have You a Clean Bill of Health."

No. 2. "The Protection of the Child."

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Annually—Proceedings and Papers of the Annual Meeting and Conference.

Official Organ—"Child and Family Welfare," issued bi-monthly. (\$1.00 per year).

\* Posters—Out of Print.

# Canadian Welfare Council

Founded in Ottawa, in 1919, as the result of a National Conference of Child Welfare Workers, convened by the Child Welfare Division, Federal Department of Health, COUNCIL HOUSE, 221 COOPER ST., OTTAWA, CANADA.

## OBJECT.

- (1) To create throughout the Dominion of Canada an informed public opinion on problems in the field of social welfare.
- (2) To assist in the promotion of methods and services which are based on scientific principles and which have been proved effective in practical experience.

## METHODS.

- (1) The preparation and publication of literature, arrangement of lectures, addresses, radio and film material, etc., and general educational propaganda in social welfare.
- (2) Conferences. (3) Field Studies and Surveys. (4) Research.

## MEMBERSHIP.

The membership shall be of two groups, organization and individual.

- (1) Organization membership shall be open to any organization, institution or group having the progress of Canadian Social Welfare wholly or in part included in their program, articles of incorporation, or other statement of incorporation.
- (2) Individual membership shall be open to any individual interested in or engaged in Welfare work, upon payment of the fee, whether that individual is in work, under any government in Canada or not.

## FEES.

1. National Organizations..... Annual Fee, \$5.00—Representatives: 2.
  2. Provincial Organizations..... Annual Fee, \$2.00—Representatives: 2.
  3. Municipal Organizations..... Annual Fee, \$2.00—Representatives: 1.
  4. Individual Members..... Annual Fee, \$1.00—Representatives: 1.
- In electing the Governing Board and the Executive, all members will be grouped according to their registration by the Treasurer.

Every member will receive a copy of the proceedings of the Annual Conference and such other publications as may be published from time to time.

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